The Outlook

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THE LAST WEEK OF THE SIXTY-THIRD CONGRESS

Beyond question, if one may judge from the expressions of the press, the country felt a distinct and general sense of relief when it became evident that the Ship Purchase Bill would not be passed at this session of Congress, and that the present intention of the President was not to call an extra (or preliminary) session of the Sixty-fourth Congress.

The "sidetracking" of the Ship Purchase Bill was a singular piece of Congressional procedure, and, as many people may have been puzzled by the announcement in the papers that the bill had been "sent to conference" (which ordinarily means that the Senate and lower house have passed each a bill of its own which are to be brought into unison in a conference committee of the two houses and then reported for passage to each house), it may be interesting to state what this procedure was: The Senate had failed to pass the Ship Purchase Bill introduced by Senator Stone, but it had previously passed the Weeks Bill, which provided for the establishment of naval mail lines between the United States and South America and Europe, but had nothing to do with ship purchase. Now, when the Democratic caucus decided that the House of Representatives should take up the ship purchase matter, it called back from its own committee the Weeks Bill, and so amended it as practically to wipe out of existence the original Weeks Bill and put in its place the very ship purchase provisions of the Senate bill which had failed to pass the Senate. The House then passed this amended Weeks Bill, and, as this had already in its original form passed the Senate, it was possible for both houses to agree to send it to conference, from which, it is safe to say, it will not emerge.

An immense amount remains to be done by Congress during the week ending March 4. There is, as we write, some slight hope for some important bits of legislation, such as the Child Labor Bill, the Workmen's Compensation Bill, conservation measures, and others already mentioned in The Outlook. But the appropriation bills must necessarily take up most of the time. There is great danger of unintelligent and extravagant legislation on appropriations—and that at a time when economy is most needed. Thus the River and Harbor Bill as introduced carries a total of $34,000,000, which is more than $7,000,000 greater than the amount appropriated in 1914 and two and one-half times as large as the amount appropriated ten years ago, in 1905. It would take a good deal of evidence to show that this bill is not of what is commonly called the "pork barrel" kind. In a recent speech on this subject in the House of Representatives by the Hon. James A. Frear, of Wisconsin, this very moderate general comment was made: "Good projects, and many of them, will be found in this $34,000,000 bill; but if left to ordinary legislative practices and introduced as independent bills, or if placed under the jurisdiction of a conservative appropriation committee, or if required to pass inspection before a high-class non-partisan waterway board, the total amount would be cut more than half, and many worthy waterway projects now neglected would find recognition."

It will be noted, despite the slowness and lack of direct action by this last session of the Sixty-third Congress, that it lost no time over one matter—namely, the Pension Bill. A despatch on Washington's Birthday noted that the bill, which carried over $160,000,000, was passed by the Senate in four minutes—a record of about $40,000,000 a minute in expenditure!

The Senate has before it for confirmation as we write the President's nominees for the Trade Commission: The Chairman, Mr. Joseph E. Davies, has as Commissioner of Corporations acquired much knowledge and experience that must be of value, and it is a fitting thing in itself that the first Chairman

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of the new Trade Commission should be the former head of the body which it supplants; Mr. George Rublee is a lawyer of skill and a man of broad views in financial and industrial affairs; W. J. Harris has been Director of the Census; W. H. Parry has been an editor in Seattle, has been Treasurer of that city, and was an official of the Alaska-Yukon Exposition; Mr. Edward N. Hurley is President of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association. Three of the members are Democrats, and two at least have been active party leaders. There have been rumors about possible appointments which would not have been acceptable to the business community, and there has been a general expression of relief that positively undesirable appointments were not made, and a disposition to give the actual appointees every chance to prove their efficiency and worth before criticism.

FOOD IN PACKAGES

Economy is a trait which Americans need to cultivate, particularly at this time. When, after a period of financial depression which has reduced incomes and enhanced the cost of living, a great war has added to the burden of humanity, there is greater need than ever for economy. But all advice concerning ways of economizing is not necessarily wise.

These remarks have been suggested by the advice offered on behalf of the Food Supply Committee appointed by Mayor Mitchel, of New York. One of the suggestions which this Committee has made is that housewives should not buy their food in packages, but buy it rather in bulk. The idea seems to be that food put up in packages is necessarily more expensive. The cost of putting it up is something, and then there is added the cost of the special means of distributing it. This cost, it is suggested, might be saved if food were transmitted and bought in bulk.

There are some forms of food which one would never think of buying otherwise than in bulk. Raw potatoes, for instance, no one would think of purchasing in packages, carefully sealed and marked with a special trademark, unless they were a special variety of potatoes in the nature of luxuries. There are, however, some foods that by their nature cannot be sold except in packages, as, for instance, those that are liquid or semi-liquid in character.

Where can the line be drawn?

First, it is plain that the saving of a few cents at the cost of health is not economy at all. Wherever, therefore, the selling of food in packages is of sanitary advantage, the buyer is not well advised if he purchases that food in bulk. The old cracker barrel that used to stand in the cross-roads grocery, recipient of every kind of unsanitary attention, repository of dust and of flies and of what not, is typical of one form of food in bulk. Milk, formerly sold from large cans, from which it was dipped by a careless and unkempt man and poured into open pitchers, to stand around in dust and heat, is now largely sold in packages—namely, in sterilized and tightly closed bottles; and in some places it is against the law to sell it in bulk at all. Let the housewife beware of any form of economy that endangers health.

But even without danger to health, the purchase of some kinds of food in bulk may be a poor form of economy; for there is nothing in which quality is more important than in food; and food in bulk has nobody's guarantee of quality of nutriment, ordinarily not even the guarantee of the merchant who sells it; while food in packages, bearing the manufacturer's name, carries with it a definite concern's responsibility to the public. The failure of quality in a food put up in a package is a failure that reacts so certainly upon the manufacturer that it is not ordinarily risked. For the sake of quality, which is of utmost importance in food, there is abundant reason, even on grounds of economy, for food in packages.

Whatever convenience may come from package foods may possibly be sacrificed in times of stress for the sake of economy. Inconvenience can be endured; but sacrifice of quality in food is certainly inadvisable, and sacrifice of considerations of health is worse than inadvisable. We hope that the people who read advice about buying food in bulk and in packages will take it, as all advice should be taken, with discrimination and intelligence.

THE UNITED STATES CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND THE SHIPPING BILL

Our readers will remember that The Outlook has devoted recently considerable space to the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. In our issue of February 3 there was published an article by Mr. Felix Orman relating

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the history of and the procedure of this great commercial body, which is made up of an affiliation of six hundred and thirty-odd local Chambers of Commerce, representing every State but one in the country.

The fundamental principle of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States is that by the use of the referendum the Board of Directors of the Chamber shall obtain the opinion of all the Chambers of Commerce which are members of the central organization before it publishes the public opinion of business men represented in the Chamber on great political and social questions.

In our issue of the 17th of February we reported that at the annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States at Washington, which was attended, of course, not by every member of the National body, but by delegates, the delegates by an emphatic majority registered their disapproval of the Administration's Shipping Bill. We are now informed by Mr. Edward A. Filene, one of the men most active in the creation of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, that the action of the delegates has been misunderstood in some quarters.

It is practically the unanimous belief of the Chamber that its unprecedented National success is due chiefly to the fact that it has adopted the principle of the referendum. For by this principle every member can register his opinion on public questions.

At the annual meeting at Washington the chief desire of those who have the success of the Chamber most at heart was to preserve the referendum principle on so important a question as the Shipping Bill. In order that the question should be referred to the constituent Chambers throughout the United States and should not appear to be decided at the annual meeting, all resolutions were voted down which conflicted with the referendum idea. What, therefore, we referred to as "an emphatic disapproval of the Shipping Bill" was, in reality, an emphatic disapproval of settling the question then and there, and a determination to refer the question by referendum to the constituent Chambers of Commerce, although it is quite apparent that a majority of the delegates were personally opposed to the Shipping Bill.

The referendum method has been successfully practiced for three years by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. It has proved to be a most successful method of obtaining genuine public opinion on business questions. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States ought to preserve and protect it. We are therefore glad to correct what appears to be a somewhat general misapprehension regarding the vote at Washington.

THE UTAH INDIAN FIGHT

So long a time has passed since any serious Indian outbreak that the recent news of fighting in Utah between Piute Indians and a sheriff's posse was more startling than it would have been some years ago. It soon became evident, however, despite sensational newspaper headlines, that this was not a war between whites and Indians, nor a planned Indian outbreak in any large sense; it was rather a result of tribal excitement caused by the arrest of one member of the tribe who was charged with crime.

The Piutes have always been a hard tribe to civilize, and "Old Polk," the leader of the present resistance, has long had about him a band of semi-outlaw Piutes in the wild, remote country of canyons, caves, and gulches near the Utah-Colorado line. To the refuge of this band, said to number about fifty, fled Old Polk's son, "Young Polk," Tse-Na-Gat, or Hatch, as he is variously called. He had been indicted by a Federal Grand Jury for the murder of a Mexican sheepherder in Colorado. The crime was a typical Wild Western "bad man" killing of no significance as regards our general Indian policy. The Piute band numbered about fifty; it resisted the rather insufficient posse sent against it, and during the fighting five Indians were killed and several wounded, and one white man was fatally wounded. Later Indian police were called on to aid the sheriff's men, and several arrests were made, although up to Wednesday of last week Young Polk and Old Polk were still at large, and the need of calling upon Federal troops seemed to have passed.

The case is one which requires firm but cautious handling. It does not involve the probability of a long or widespread "war," but is rather like the white desperado frays which have sometimes temporarily disturbed the peace in the wild and thinly settled mountain regions of the West.

CANADIAN INDIANS AND THE FUR TRADE

Following close upon the outbreak of the European war the Continental fur trade

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centers of Leipsic, London, Paris, and Petrograd closed their doors against incoming fur shipments; the fur market in Europe became a dead thing. And the North American Continent, ranking as it does second in the list of fur-producing continents, was of course vitally affected.

In Canada ninety per cent of the fur taken comes from the region lying northward from the fifty-third parallel of latitude to the Arctic Ocean, and from the Alaskan boundary and the Pacific Ocean on the west to the shores of Hudson Bay and James Bay on the east. The most casual glance at the map of North America gives an idea of the immensity of the territory covered.

In 1670 the Hudson's Bay Company invaded this territory, and during the next hundred and fifty years established a string of fur posts from end to end of it. From this region, then, still largely a *terra incognita* of immeasurable vastness peopled by scattered bands of Indians, this company through its chain of fur depots wrung a harvest of wealth that for vastness of dividends paid on the initial investment has probably no equal in the history of the world.

About a hundred and thirty years after the invasion of the Hudson's Bay Company the powerful French firm of Revillon Frères entered into active competition in this field. In turn came independent trading companies; all of which now carry on the business of gathering in the furs produced in this area.

With the outbreak of the war all the companies, their market in Europe shut off, stopped buying furs. And the Hudson's Bay Company, on behalf of itself, Revillon Frères, and the independent trading companies, notified the Department of Indian Affairs of the Canadian Government that they would be unable to make the usual advance of supplies to the Indians by which the Indians were in former years enabled to go into the wilderness and carry on the season's trapping. Three pictures of these Indians at their work are printed in this week's illustrated section.

"DEBT" AND BARTER

For over two centuries it has been the practice of the fur post factors of northern Canada to advance supplies to the Indians trapping in their vicinity. This advance, known as "debt," was taken out of the fur catch brought in by the trappers the following spring. In good years a nice balance was left over for the Indian, and he and his family reveled in new blankets and gewgaws; became possessed of more guns and much powder and ball; grew fat from well feeding. When bad years overtook the Indian hunter he was not able to pay all of last year's "debt"—was even forced to take out a new one. So that the Indian, eternally improvident, seldom secured independence from the furmen; nor did he ever lay anything away for a rainy day.

Robbed of a market for any furs he may have had on hand when the war broke out and with the customary "debt" now refused, some twenty-five thousand northern Canadian Indians now face a serious situation; many of them may starve. Of course they are in many ways to blame for this condition of affairs. But at the same time the real responsibility lies elsewhere—with the white man.

"God made the game and the fur-bearing animals for the Indian, and trade goods and money for the white man," an old Indian chief said, very sagely, to the writer recently; "and," he added, plaintively, "they shouldn't be mixed, for when they do the Indian always gets the worst of it."

The situation could not have been more aptly summed up. Before the white man came the Indian lived successfully by what he gained from the chase. Then fur-gathering was merely a side line with him. With the establishing of fur posts by the white men the Indian began gradually to trap more and hunt less, depending on the proceeds from his fur which would buy white man's grub and thus make up the deficit caused from his neglecting the hunt.

In the old days an Indian, to buy one of the old-fashioned long-barreled rifles known as "trade guns," was required to pile up skins one upon the other till they reached in height from the butt to the end of the rifle barrel. At Fort Nelson, British Columbia, a place far in the interior, the following prices were in effect in October, 1910: Flour, 30 cents a pound; tea (common), $1; bacon, 50 cents; rolled oats, 50 cents; and sulphur matches, $2 per quarter gross. At Fort Murray, much nearer civilization, 1914 prices were: per pound, tea, $1; flour, 20 cents; sugar, 25 cents.

Considering these prices, which are a very fair sample of prices charged to the Indians in many parts of the North, it is to be doubted whether the Indian is as well off as a trapper

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for the white man as he would have been by remaining an independent hunter.

THE RELIGIOUS REVIVAL AT YALE

There is at present in progress in Yale University a religious revival which in its interest and efficiency has no parallel in the history of the University except the revival of 1831, at which Horace Bushnell was converted.

Over one thousand students attended each of the four successive meetings held February 14–17, filling the main floor of Woolsey Hall. This audience included most of the leaders in undergraduate life, and was about equally divided among academic and scientific students. The speaker was G. Sherwood Eddy, Yale '91, Sheffield, Intercollegiate Young Men's Christian Association Secretary for Asia. He conducted similar campaigns last year at the University of California, University of Chicago, and Pennsylvania State College. The manager of the advertising campaign and student organizing at Yale was the manager of the victorious Yale crew of last year. The campaign was conducted on a university scale, with all the care as to details which Yale is accustomed to associate with a big football match or anything else that commands the interest of the student mind, and it was made evident that when religion is presented as a commanding issue on a big scale men are as much interested in it as they are in athletics, if not more so.

Two meetings were held "for decision." Several hundred men registered their decision, which was of this general nature: "It is my purpose, with the help of God, to pay what it costs to be a sincere follower of Jesus Christ." Daily meetings are now held for men who are asking these three fundamental questions: How to Study the Bible, How to Pray, and How to Serve.

So much for the bare facts.

HOW THE COLLEGE EVANGELISM STARTED

To understand the significance of this religious awakening at Yale there is needed a brief explanation of the genesis of this "new evangelism" of the second decade of the twentieth century which is transforming our colleges and which makes it natural and normal for students to desire a period set apart for special meetings each year when they can "come across," as they put it.

The movement began in an attempt to establish a small midwinter Northfield Student Conference at Yale for the great body of men who could not get up to Northfield at the close of the year. The teaching of Professor William James, of Harvard, showed how useless it was to get men to listen to appeals if they were not energized to act on them. This gave a scientific basis for registered decisions. As soon as John R. Mott and G. Sherwood Eddy dared act on this the results were so remarkable that the conservatives no longer opposed it. The teachers of philosophy in the class-room had prepared the way for such methods.

The movement really began at the Pennsylvania State College last year under Frank N. D. Buchman. Mr. Eddy spoke there and Mr. Buchman worked out the details of advertising, and so on. This year Mr. Mott followed Mr. Eddy at the Pennsylvania State College; 1,700 of the 2,500 students attended each of the four meetings. There was also a campaign simultaneously for the Faculty which was conducted by Professor Wright, of Yale, and 100 of the Faculty (all men) attended regularly for six nights in succession. The significant thing about this year's Pennsylvania State College campaign was its intercollegiate character. There were 150 workers there under Frank Buchman from practically all the colleges of the East. Yale sent twenty, Princeton nearly as many. When 150 leading Christian undergraduates—athletes, scholars, and social leaders—work with 2,500 students, it certainly helps to confirm the truth that religion spreads by contagion.

At the Yale campaign men were present from Princeton, Harvard, Pennsylvania State, Wesleyan, besides many Yale graduates. There was a "flying squadron" of from fifteen to twenty men who spoke in the society houses and dormitory entries each night.

A PUBLIC LOSS

Art lovers throughout the country learned with very real sorrow that Mr. J. P. Morgan had decided to sell part of the great and valuable collections left by his father in the custody, but not to the ownership, of the Metropolitan Museum. It will be remembered that at the time of the elder Mr. Morgan's death his entire art collections were left without reserve to his son. In his will the elder Mr. Morgan said:

> I have been interested for many years in gathering my collections of paintings, miniatures, porcelains, and other works of art, and it has

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been my desire and intention to make some suitable disposition of them, or of such portions of them as I might determine, which would render them permanently available for the instruction and pleasure of the American people. Lack of the necessary time to devote to it has as yet prevented my carrying this purpose into effect. . . . Should either my son or grandson thus succeed to the ownership of these collections, I hope he will be able, in such manner as he shall think best, to make a permanent disposition, or from time to time to make permanent dispositions, of them or such portions of them as he may determine, which will be a substantial carrying out of the intentions which I have thus cherished.

This statement of Mr. Morgan's wishes was followed by a clause stating that this was not to be interpreted as qualifying his son's or grandson's absolute ownership of the collections or as placing upon them any moral or legal obligation.

The first break in the great collections which Mr. Morgan's son has now found it necessary to make came with the announcement that the Morgan porcelains had been sold to a firm of art dealers in New York City. This rare gathering together of Chinese porcelains ranks as the first collection of its kind in the world. More than anything else, perhaps, left by Mr. Morgan, it has been associated with his name in the public mind. Its sale, fortunately, leaves the Museum still possessed of the Altman collection of porcelains, a collection which equals that made by Mr. Morgan in the excellence of its individual pieces, but which is not so comprehensive in its presentation of the workmanship of the Chinese masters.

Following the sale of these porcelains the announcement has been made that the Fragonard panels are to follow the same course by which the porcelains were lost to the Museum and the public at large. These panels by the brilliant eighteenth-century French decorative artist have been shown in the Museum under the most favorable circumstances. In a room specifically designed for their display they appeared in a setting admirably adapted to make the most of their special charm and of their peculiar and characteristic spirit.

It is to be hoped that the rumors that other treasures are to be sold from the Morgan collections are without foundation. The public loss even of something which the public does not own (when that something happens to be one of the collections made by the elder Morgan) is a thing not to be lightly thought of by American art lovers.

THE OLD AND THE NEW IN THEATRICAL ART

The fact that there is a battle for public attention between the legitimate drama and the "movies" is one that has frequently been brought to public attention. During the past year even the casual observer who had seen the empty seats and had read of the difficulties confronting the theater managers who owned these seats must have been led to find some connection between the poor business done by "legitimate" and the numerous flaring posters and the hardly less numerous motion-picture houses they advertise which have appeared within the past few years throughout the entire country.

The present state of affairs in the theatrical world is described by Mr. William A. Brady, the theatrical manager and producer, in a recent article in the "Saturday Evening Post." According to Mr. Brady, the theater manager has not surrendered to his new adversary without something more than a diplomatic protest. Mr. Brady says:

> The position of the theater manager to-day is like that of the sailor whose ship is rammed by an enemy. His own vessel sinking, he finds himself clambering aboard the enemy. And why not? The only other thing left for him to do would be to drop into the blue waters of oblivion—a thing which no theater man was ever known to do willingly.

Mr. Brady describes in some detail the process by which this transfer of command is being made, and gives the list of well-known managers who have either failed or been forced to take up the moving-picture business as a serious if not all-important adjunct to their own. He describes, too, the path which has been followed by both authors and actors in learning the tricks of this very modern trade. The moving picture has meant not only an entire remapping of the theatrical world, but it has also meant a revival of a time-honored part of the art of acting. It has restored pantomime to the stage.

FACES THAT AID FORTUNE

In this connection a technical point in the new art, which Mr. Brady cites, is of interest:

> Many persons who have in view posing for the camera would like to know what makes people most available for that work. As to looks,

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a broad face, big eyes, and loads of hair—in the case of girls or women—are good. A narrow face will not do. There is a girl now playing in New York who, up to a year ago, was considered a great stage beauty. The moving-picture makers all went crazy over her. A test was made of her, and it was found that her features—she had a Roman nose and beautiful eyes—did not photograph well because they were too narrow. . . .

It is customary in picking out actors or actresses for the screen to put them to a test. They are required to parade before the camera showing their method of expressing anger, love, passion, and comedy. From this test the director decides whether or not they are available.

The most successful of those who have passed this test and who have won their way to popular applause and approval is Miss Mary Pickford. This young actress's popularity, Mr. Brady says, has not waned in any way since the invasion of the moving-picture field by the headliners of the regular stage. According to Mr. Brady, Miss Pickford has recently signed a contract for the coming year whereby she is to receive $2,000 a week for fifty-two weeks, with the privilege of picking her own plays and being paid whether she works or not.

Mr. Brady concludes his discussion of the moving-picture field by a reference to the history of the legitimate stage and a prophecy as to its future. All prophecies are dangerous. The only safe kind is the variety that is created, buried, and then dug up to explain events in the immediate past. However, it may be interesting to quote Mr. Brady's conclusions and let the future decide whether he has been gifted with second sight or not:

History will repeat itself in the matter of the moving pictures. If one body of men ever succeeds in controlling them, those men will act just as the theater men did when they got control of the theaters of the country. . . .

The booking agent in the moving-picture business is going to do the same thing. . . . The film is to him the same as butter, shoes, leather, pants, or pork; but he can organize his forces, establish branch selling offices throughout the country, and get good men to handle his products. . . .

The salesman and the promoter will get control, the film business will deteriorate and go through the same process the theater is going through now; and then in time, at the other end of the cycle, the legitimate theater will come back to its own.

On the whole, we are inclined to believe that there will always be plenty of room for both the "legitimate" and the "movies."

ENGLISH OPERA IN AMERICA

English opera in America is in difficulties again.

For one hundred and fifty years it has lived and died and lived again on our stage in varying guise. In 1750 "The Beggar's Opera" crossed to New York and Philadelphia from London, and found so firm a welcome that until 1825 so-called "ballad opera" sung in the vernacular was the only sort this country knew. Then came nearly fifty years of foreign music-singing, until Clara Louise Kellogg raised a company of capable artists and compelled critical audiences to admiration. After the failure of the project many of the singers were re-engaged by the National Opera Company in 1888–9, under the management of Theodore Thomas of sainted memory, and with the beautiful Emma Juch as its star. This was an attempt to coax Americans from worship of strange gods to patriotic support of opera in their own tongue. Its history was brilliant but brief, and for the next ten years "Robin Hood," "The Serenade," "Pinafore," and "The Mikado" perforce contented the country with their sprightly melodies. Not until 1904–5, when Mr. Henry Savage carried "Parsifal" throughout the length and breadth of the land in an English version, did grand opera in English come back to its own. Last, and most important of all such experiments, were the two seasons of English opera given in New York and Chicago by the Century Opera Company, which came to an abrupt end in January, 1915.

In spite of this discouraging record, Mr. Otto H. Kahn, chairman of the Executive Committee of the Century Company and an enthusiastic advocate of English opera, is firmly of the opinion that popular opera in America is only in a condition of "suspended animation produced by insufficient nutrition," and that it may and will be speedily revived. Because Mr. Kahn believes that to create a music-loving people music must be provided in a form they can understand, he has done more than any other man to encourage the continuance of the Century Company. His faith in ultimate success lies in the ability of English opera to compete with the "movies" in the public's affections. In 1913–4, in New York, the eight hundred twenty-five and

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fifty cent seats at the Century Opera-House were almost always sold, while the next eight hundred at a dollar went nearly as well. It was as if the poor man wanted music, while the well-to-do majority preferred to pay more for worse seats at the big Metropolitan Opera-House. They wanted to scan society and hear the stars all in one evening.

It is not devotion to sweet music, but the circus-goer's instinct, which drives many to high-priced opera. They are hardly to blame. Opera in America is exotic. It has always been a luxury for the few. The many can have no accustomed ear for it. In Europe every little German or Italian city, and many French cities, have each its company of singers. Their public has been trained in appreciation for years. The taxes go to their support. Impossible to think of Frankfort or Munich without its opera company giving performances throughout the year, always in German. But Chicago and Philadelphia and Boston and New York follow in the footsteps of London, and import foreign singers to render universal music in a foreign tongue. Our own American artists here or in England must go on pouring out their song in faulty Italian or worse German.

Opera, after all, does not furnish music of the highest standards, or of the widest appeal. It is an artificial thing that belongs to the realm of entertainment quite as much as to the realm of art.

NUMBERING THE BIRDS

While it can hardly be said that not a single sparrow falls to the ground without the knowledge of our Department of Agriculture, at least the first step towards such a state of affairs has been made, for the biologists of the Department have just completed a "preliminary census of the birds of the United States." Bird lovers may obtain the findings of this census in detail by asking for Bulletin No. 187 of the Department of Agriculture.

Of course this census makes no pretense of being as complete and as thorough as is the census of human beings. Certain representative localities were selected, and general conclusions were based on the findings of volunteer census-takers in these sections. It is expected that this census will be repeated in successive years if bird lovers throughout the land show themselves willing to aid in the work. The Government furnishes no funds for this purpose, and therefore its success depends on the work of volunteer assistants.

This preliminary census, however, has brought out many points of interest. Among other things it has apparently established the claim of the American robin to the first place in the rank of our bird citizens. The English sparrow is a close second. It appears from this statement that the census returns are not based upon data secured in the streets of New York City. In the Northeastern United States, where the census was most thorough, there are on the average six pairs of robins to each farm of fifty-eight acres. In this district English sparrows average five pairs per farm. Taking a hundred robins as a unit, other desirable birds were noted in the following proportions: Catbirds, 49; house wrens, 28; brown thrush, 37; king-birds, 27; bluebirds, 26.

The statistics regarding bluebirds were particularly gratifying to the authorities in the Department of Agriculture, for only a few years ago nearly the whole bluebird population of the Eastern United States was destroyed by a severe winter. Apparently now there are several million bluebirds throughout this region.

The locality with the densest bird population covered by the census was reported from Chevy Chase, Maryland, where one hundred and sixty-one pairs, representing thirty-four different species of birds, found nesting-places on twenty-three acres. The average throughout the country was one pair of birds to each acre of farm land.

One gratifying conclusion reached by the investigators is that breeding birds prefer thickly inhabited centers of population. In such a locality as that which surrounds the Meriden Bird Club, in New Hampshire, such a condition would obviously be expected, but that the ordinary run of human beings should be so favored by the feathered inhabitants of the country seems a rather undeserved reward for kindness and interest too often withheld.

As has been fully shown by the experience of those who have established bird refuges in Germany and in this country, birds pay for increased attention, not only by their companionship but by waging relentless war upon the insect pests that are a constant menace to successful farming. The building and establishing of bird houses of a kind really adapted to the needs of the expected

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tenants is an easy way to secure both protection and delight.

INTERNATIONAL OPIUM REFORM

Dr. Henry van Dyke, American Minister to Holland, Tang Tsing-fou, the Chinese Minister, and Mr. Loudon, the Dutch Minister of Foreign Affairs, have affixed their signatures to the protocol of the anti-opium convention or treaty signed at The Hague in June last. This agreement aims at the suppression of the international traffic in opium, cocaine, and other noxious and habit-forming drugs. The affixing of their signatures to the protocol by these three diplomats puts the convention into immediate force for the signatory countries, which comprise, approximately, about five hundred million inhabitants. At the conclusion of the ceremony Dr. van Dyke said, as telegraphed:

> The terrible fact that this enormous war is in progress should not make civilized nations ignore things which operate for the welfare of mankind. The opium convention aims at putting a stop to the vicious trade in opium as an intoxicant and at imposing the strictest regulation on the legitimate commerce in opium for purely medicinal purposes. I hope that the three nations which have taken the first definite step in this direction soon will be followed by many others.
>
> It is a great satisfaction that China, which has suffered most from the opium vice, has taken this step side by side with the United States, which has been the foremost nation in adopting legislation against this vicious trade, and that Holland, with her immense possessions in the East Indies, should take the same stand.

Despite the war, it is expected that all the other signatory Powers will follow the lead of the United States, Holland, and China.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN TURKEY

The rumors of attempts to collect large sums from American institutions in Turkey for alleged taxes have now been confirmed. Robert College, at Constantinople, has been asked to contribute $20,000, and other colleges have been variously taxed according to their size and importance.

But an even more interesting recent development is the order issued by the Turkish officials with reference to American schools in Turkey. Assuming that all agreements and understandings of the past were wiped out by the abrogation of the capitulations, and that for the future they are to start upon an entirely new basis, the Government recognizes, of course, our property rights in the way of buildings, etc., and all that has been secured under permanent law; but it does not propose to recognize any rights to continue the schools without a new application being made to the local officials and a new commission secured. If the order should be carried out to the letter, it would close many American schools in Turkey.

All foreign schools, whether possessing a firman (authorization) or without a firman, whether pertaining to individuals or establishments, are forbidden to give instruction and training in the religion with which the school is identified, or in studies connected with that religion or denomination, or with its sacred history, to students who are not already followers of that religion; nor shall such students be required to attend religious services.

Moreover, hereafter educational, philanthropic, and religious associations are forbidden to establish new schools.

The American, Austrian, and German Ambassadors, we are glad to say, have united in an identical and strenuous protest against this action by the Turkish Government.

THE WORLD'S OLDEST LAWS

Of peculiar interest to critical students of the Old Testament is a recent find which Yale has secured for her Babylonian Collection. That the laws of Moses in the thirteenth century B.C. incorporate some of the laws of Hammurabi, who reigned in Babylonia 2285–2242 B.C., was discovered about a dozen years ago, when these were found engraved upon a block of diorite over seven feet high. The Mosaic legislation is now traced back beyond these to 2500 B.C. by the discovery of their prototype in the clay tablet now at Yale.

The empire of Hammurabi (whom scholars identify with Amraphel, King of Shinar, who appears in Genesis xiv. 1 as contemporary with Abraham) extended from Babylonia to the Mediterranean—a Semitic conqueror who had brought under his rule the Mongolian Sumerians, in whose language the clay tablet is engraved. To unify law thoughout his dominions by codifying the approved judicial decisions of the past seems to have been his purpose. His Code

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of two hundred and eighty-seven sections thus concludes: "The judgments of righteousness which Hammurabi, the mighty king, confirmed, and caused the land to take a sure guidance and a gracious rule." Entitled "The Oldest Code of Laws in the World," it was published in Scotland, 1903, and imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

The oldest of all the documents woven together in the Pentateuch is the so-called Book of the Covenant, Exodus xx–xxiii. 19. The derivation of this from the Code and of the Code from the tablet is conspicuous in their treatment of cases of injury resulting in the miscarriage of pregnant women. See Exodus xxi. 20. The close dependence of the Code upon the tablet is said to be so apparent both in their details and their phraseology as to leave no doubt of the priority of the tablet, most of which has been translated. The "Yale Alumni Weekly," from which this account of it is derived, states that the translation will soon be published in a volume of the texts now in the Yale collection.

THE RIGHTS OF MERCHANT SHIPS IN WAR

Have ordinary peaceful merchant vessels any rights which belligerents are bound to respect? Must America accept as regrettable but unavoidable "accidents" injuries done to American vessels, even if those injuries involve the destruction of life? Within a few days after the German war zone decree went into effect two American vessels were lost, apparently through running upon mines. Are we to accept the loss of such vessels with equanimity? If, as conceivably may happen any day, a submarine without warning destroys, with all or almost all on board, an American steamship, or even a merchantman belonging to a belligerent Power carrying Americans as passengers, must the United States regard the loss of such a ship and such lives as the fortune of the sea?

It is such questions as these that have been raised in the minds of Americans by the laying of German and of British mines in the North Sea, and by Germany's decree warning the world that she was going to attack merchantmen by her submarines without warning, and that neutral merchantmen must keep out of the way if they did not wish to be hurt. These questions have in turn raised other questions. To some of these questions the United States has given its answers in a note to Germany concerning Germany's decree. Now Germany has replied to the American note and has raised new questions.

It will help to an understanding of the critical situation in which America finds herself involved if we briefly rehearse those rights which have been established for merchant ships, and if we apply to new conditions created by new engines of naval warfare the principles that have been established through decades, and in some cases through generations, of civilized custom.

It may be said at the very beginning that whatever rights purely commercial vessels have depend upon keeping clear the distinction between such commercial vessels and vessels of war. It is therefore plain that merchant vessels cannot ordinarily take part in operations that might be called warlike. All private merchant vessels, whether belonging to a neutral or to a belligerent nation, are subject to visit and search by war-ships. Neutral vessels must submit to such visit and search. If a neutral merchantman undertakes to resist the exercise of this right of visit and search on the part of a belligerent naval vessel, she is liable to confiscation. But —and this is important—a neutral vessel may carry arms for self-defense, and the fact that she carries arms does not affect her character as a merchant vessel. The revised statutes of the United States recognize the right of merchantmen to be armed. In Cushing vs. the United States it was decided that the seizure by France of an American merchantman could not be justified by the fact that she was armed for defensive purposes. (See Moore's "International Law Digest," Vol. II, p. 1071.) Such a vessel, however, must not use her arms to resist visit and search.

This rule against resistance, however, does not apply to a merchantman belonging to a belligerent Power. Such a merchantman, which, like a neutral merchantman, may be armed, may, at her own risk, resist visit and search by an enemy war-ship. Such resistance, of course, may be regarded as participation in belligerent operations; but such participation, being limited, does not affect her status as a merchantman or convert her into a ship-of-war. She cannot become a ship-of-

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war without being recognized as such by the nation to which she belongs, and being put under the command of recognized naval officers. If such a vessel without such official recognition undertakes to commit acts of aggressive hostility without justification, she is liable to be regarded as a pirate. Otherwise such a belligerent merchantman is a non-combatant.

These principles are important, and must be kept clearly in mind at such a time as this. And with these principles must be included another which is equally fundamental. The naval vessel of an enemy may, of course, be attacked and sunk without warning; but not so a merchantman, whether belonging to a neutral or to a belligerent. If a merchantman is captured on the high seas, the ordinary rule is that if she is not to be released she is to be taken to a port and subjected to a prize court. Sometimes, however, on account of "danger to the safety of the war-ship," to use the language of the Declaration of London, "or to the success of the operations in which she is engaged at the time," this ordinary rule cannot be observed. In that case the merchantman, if a belligerent, and under exceptional circumstances even if a neutral, may be sunk; but in no case can such a vessel be sunk unless the ship's papers are preserved and provision is made for the safety of the ship's passengers and crew. Ordinarily, such provision is made by taking the passengers and crew off in small boats from the condemned merchantman to the war-vessel or some other vessel. Perhaps, if the ship were within a few miles of shore and the weather were good, a reasonable compliance with this provision might be the sending of the passengers and crew ashore in small boats; but it would not be a compliance with this provision to set them adrift in the open sea.

From these fundamental principles there are certain things that we can very clearly see. First, that a government which urged its merchant vessels to commit acts of hostile aggression indiscriminately against enemy merchantmen or enemy naval vessels would be guilty, not only of a violation of international law, but of the sort of violation of international law which would most seriously tend to break down civilization. It is perfectly evident that if the whole world is not to be thrown into anarchy by every war there must be kept clear the distinction between merchantmen and naval vessels. Not only, therefore, must every government refrain from ordering, advising, or offering prizes for such indiscriminate acts of hostile aggression on the part of its own merchantmen, but it must in honor make every reasonable effort to prevent individuals from holding out inducements for the commission of such illegal acts.

In the second place, we can see that the submarine has introduced very serious complications. Of course a submarine has entire right in international law (whatever we may think of the chivalry of it) to sneak up to a naval vessel of the enemy and send a torpedo into her vitals; but a submarine has no more right than any other naval vessel to attack and sink without warning a merchantman. There is no reason why submarines should not exercise every right of a war-ship wherever they can do so without violating fundamental, recognized rules. For example, a submarine may signal a vessel to stop, and if the signal is perceived and disobeyed, may launch a torpedo to sink the vessel; or a submarine, after ascertaining that a vessel belongs to the enemy or is a neutral vessel attempting to violate a blockade, may oblige her to follow a specified course under pain of receiving a torpedo in her side. Submarines may not, however, sink any merchant vessel not resisting capture unless the conditions are such that sinking the ship will not involve the loss of the ship's papers or endanger the safety of the passengers and crew. Now it happens that a submarine is not equipped, as cruisers or battle-ships are, to take passengers aboard or even to send out small boats. It cannot, therefore, comply with the rule requiring that it take passengers and crew aboard itself. Under ordinary circumstances, therefore, there are only two alternatives open to the submarine—either to let the merchantman go or to sink her and let her passengers and crew shift for themselves. To do the latter would be, not only a non-compliance with the rules, but a violation of the dictates of common humanity on which the rule was founded. It is conceivable that a submarine might be on the lookout for some distinguished general aboard a vessel; but that situation is so rare as to be practically not worth consideration. Under all ordinary circumstances, the two alternatives we suggested are the only ones. Inasmuch as it would be entirely purposeless for a submarine to stop a merchantman simply to let her go, it is clear that whenever a sub-

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marine stops a merchantman the only action it can contemplate is the sinking of her in violation of international law and common humanity. This, therefore, places the relation of a merchantman to a submarine in a different category from the relation of a merchantman to other naval vessels. If it became known that submarines were doing what both international law and common humanity forbid, "the merchant vessels of the enemy" (we quote the words of Ellery C. Stowell, Assistant Professor of International Law at Columbia University) "might find it necessary to take measures of defense against this violation of international law." Professor Stowell, in his communication to The Outlook from which we have quoted, points out that by so doing they could not be accused of taking advantage of their non-combatant character in such a way as to constitute a breach of good faith. If a belligerent government should learn that the hostile submarines were sinking its merchantmen in violation of international law, it would be justified in ordering its merchantmen in self-defense or by way of reprisal to attack the submarines of the enemy. Submarines may therefore remain within or without the pale of international law. If they remain within the pale of international law, they must accept their lack of equipment as a limitation upon their action. If they do not do so, they have to be placed outside the pale of international law and be treated as pirates without involving any reproach upon those who do treat them as pirates.

In the light of these principles, to the questions with which this editorial began we reply: America is not required to accept as regrettable or unavoidable accidents injuries done to American merchant vessels by a submarine, nor to Americans who are carried as passengers on a merchantman belonging to a belligerent Power. Further, whether it is required to regard as a regrettable but unavoidable accident the sinking of one of its merchant vessels by a mine would depend upon such questions as the position of the mine, the locality where the accident occurred, and the care or lack of care on behalf of the captain to avoid waters that are mined not in violation of the fundamental principles of international law. If an American merchant vessel is destroyed, or Americans are destroyed on a merchantman belonging to a belligerent, in violation of the principles reported in this article, the indignation which the American people would feel would be a righteous indignation, and the American Nation would have the right to demand, not only apology and reparation, but satisfactory assurance from the offending Power that it would not again violate the principles of international law to the injury or peril of a neutral neighbor.

CHRISTIANITY AND WAR

On January 13 The Outlook published an editorial entitled "Christianity and War," claiming that it is sometimes a Christian duty to fight. On February 3 we published a reply by Dr. Frank Crane, in which he said: "To end the six thousand years of bloodshed we must have one international court, and subject to this court one international armed force to enforce its decrees." "Which," said The Outlook, "would be war."

We have received a number of letters, some defending Dr. Crane's position, some the position of The Outlook. Several of them insist that enforcing an international decree by an armed force against the armed resistance of a nation would not be war. Let us see.

In 1914 Colorado miners armed themselves to resist the authorities of the State and armed forces of the State were sent out to enforce its decrees. The result was the "Colorado War."

In 1860 the American people decreed that Abraham Lincoln should be the President of the Nation. There is no question that the American people had a Constitutional right to make this decree. Certain States in the Union armed themselves to resist this decree and a National armed force proceeded to enforce the decree. The result was the "Civil War."

In 1907 the Hague Conference, which represented the civilized nations of the earth and which was the nearest approximation then possible to an international court, decreed that neutral territory should be inviolable. Germany was a member of that international court, and Germany, France, and England had some years before guaranteed the neutrality of Belgium. When Germany violated the neutrality of Belgium, her Chancellor frankly admitted that in doing so she was doing Belgium an injustice and was violating international law. England, France, and Russia united to enforce the interna-

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tional decree. The result was the European war.

The Outlook was one of the first of the American papers to advocate an international Supreme Court which should be for the civilized nations of the earth what the United States Supreme Court is for the States of the Union. But we have never been under the illusion that the mere establishment of such a court would put an end to war. The history of the United States, which suffered four years of terrible warfare in spite of the existence of such a tribunal, would have prevented any such illusion.

The classical definition of war is that furnished by Charles Sumner in his address on "The True Grandeur of Nations:" "War is a public armed contest between nations, under the sanction of international law, to establish justice between them." If an international court were established, and it issued a decree, and one or more of the nations refused to submit to that decree, and an international armed force proceeded to enforce that decree, the result would be "a public armed contest between nations, under the sanction of international law, to establish justice between them."

And that is war.

IN LENT

THE INWARD PUNISHMENT

Words, symbols, and forms of thought have changed; but the truths and facts behind them remain unchanged. A flaming hell no longer terrifies men; and heaven, expressed by material symbols, no longer inspires them to holy living. But heaven and hell are all the more real because we largely fashion them ourselves. That is to say, they are not waiting for us, arbitrarily created as places of reward or punishment according to the deeds done in the body; rather we have been so fashioned that by the play of the laws which God has written in our natures we not only decide whither we shall go, but what shall await us. We no longer say we shall be immortal; we know that we are immortal. Heaven and hell are not only outside, but within us; and no man can go to either destination until he has made himself ready by inward preparation. The good man who accidentally found himself in hell would not really be there; and a bad man who might stray into heaven would find it hell by sheer force of contrast between himself and his surroundings.

The moral law written in our natures is more inescapable and inexorable than when it was written on tables of stone. No man can escape because he keeps the record himself. M. Bergson's little book on "Dreams" is full of fearful intimations of immortality. It tells us that nothing we have ever said, thought, felt, or done is forgotten; that we carry with us an ineffaceable record which time cannot blur and death will not erase. Shakespeare repeated long ago in dramatic form what the Bible has enforced with the noblest imagery and the most startling distinctness: that what a man is he has made himself; that his past travels with him; that, while his sins may be forgotten, their effects cannot be eradicated by the most bitter and searching repentance. The promise of Christ is that he shall deliver us from our sins, not from their consequences.

Many people in the world do not think of the law until they see the constable or policeman. They either lack imagination or the spiritual sense which makes a man aware that, however peaceful the day may be and however beautiful the landscape, there are laws written in the world about him which are full of tragic possibilities if he disobeys.

The world is full of moral disorder because man is free; but there is no moral anarchy, because no lawbreaker escapes. The most awful quality of the hell of which men know and in which many of them live to-day is its disintegrating, benumbing, paralyzing effect. Most of us have seen some man begin, in the flush of a vigorous manhood, to violate the law of temperance; we have seen his will slowly yield, his habits interfere with his efficiency, his ability decline, the shadow creep over his home, his friends regard him with ineffectual sympathy, physical degeneracy set in, until finally he becomes an unorganized mass of matter without conscience or will or capacity, returning to the elements before he is physically dead. There is nothing more appalling or revolting, and the most awful aspect of it is that the man himself does not know what is happening. He grows less and less sensitive, and the more repulsive he becomes the less he realizes the death in life which every one else sees in him. He lives in hell. At the beginning that fact may strike home to him, but as time goes on he is less and less conscious that he is a lost soul.

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THE NEW CONSCIENCE

At the beginning of the war, with its extraordinary demands upon the generosity of the American people, it was feared that all kinds of good works at home would suffer a material diminution of income, and that many would be crippled. In some cases this has happened. In many cases givers have recognized the additional responsibilities laid upon them by the unusual conditions, and the response to home appeals has been as abundant as that to foreign appeals.

We have not yet reached the limit of either demand. Those who know the situation declare that the appeals from Europe will be even more urgent as time goes on, because conditions there will be more desperate. It will not be a question of how much we can spare, but how much we shall share. This terrible struggle will not leave the world as it found it, dynastically, politically, geographically, or economically. When the earthquake has passed and we can measure the devastation and changes which it has wrought, we shall find ourselves in another world. The old maps will be folded up and put away. Americans must make ready. The whole world is being educated into a new view of the responsibility of nation to nation, as well as of man to man. It is no longer a question of generosity; it is a question of human justice. As there have been an almost universal readjustment of duties and responsibilities in business and a new definition of business ethics, so there is being educated in society to-day a new conscience in regard to the care of others.

The bread lines in the large cities are no longer objects of curiosity, pathetic appeals for a little temporary aid. Although many of the men and women in those lines are there because they have failed to make good, nevertheless every bread line is an indictment of a social order which has, so far, substituted charity for brotherly responsibility. One of the great compensations of this agitated and critical time is this new social conscience which is being born, the new sense that men must stand together in adversity and in prosperity, and that the joy of life is to lie hereafter in what we can do for others rather than in what we can do for ourselves. This is not a new gospel, but it is being preached and enforced as never before in the history of humanity. It is in no sense revolutionary; on the contrary, it is the most constructive and conservative movement that has been set in motion by the teachings of Christ. When that gospel is not only preached, but accepted and practiced by the majority in society, there will be a great relaxation of the social tension, a quieting of the restless sea of human passion, a calm after the storm which is now threatening political and social order. We are to accept the new demands not as a tax on our patience, an attack on our prosperity, but as an opportunity of spiritual growth, of making the world in which we live less a workshop and asylum for the unfortunate and more and more a warm-hearted, open-doored home for all humanity. We must transform an imperative duty into a glorious opportunity.

The signs that this education is going on are evident on every hand; and yet, for the moment, some organizations are suffering which should not lack a dollar for any just and wise purpose. Among these is the New York Association for the Blind, of which the Lighthouse at 111 East Fifty-ninth Street in the city of New York has become a symbol.

In an open letter, bearing the signature of Mr. Choate, which has been published by the Association, its remarkable growth is briefly sketched. Eight years ago it started with a debt of $400 and a list of 500 living blind people who were without homes. It has now a list of 10,700 names, and has been in touch with 7,700 blind people. It has three thoroughly equipped buildings: a workshop for blind men; the Lighthouse, which is a training station, an information and lecture bureau, and a salesroom for the blind; and the River Lighthouse, which is a vacation home. It has a band of twenty-eight blind workers who are among the most efficient members of its staff.

Through the clinic which is established at the Lighthouse five cases of blindness were cured in a single week. Fifteen blind people who, on account of their enforced idleness and the despair of their isolation, were facing suicide have been taught to be self-supporting wage-earners. Blind pupils trained by the Association are holding clerical positions and positions of trust in many important enterprises.

Last year the sales of products manufactured by the blind netted nearly $36,000, and during that year the Lighthouse paid out almost the same sum of money to the blind in wages, relief, and for their work. Its buildings are free of debt, but its customary

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income and its sales have been greatly reduced. It is in immediate need of money, and it urgently appeals to the public for help in this crisis.

The intelligence, efficiency, and success with which the work of this Association has been carried on entitles it to all the help it needs. It has literally opened the eyes of the blind and set ajar doors which seemed to be permanently closed. Such a work, backed by the enthusiasm of Miss Winifred Holt and the co-operation of her associates, justifies the statement that the life of the American people is only partially expressed in public action; that politics, although noisy and characterized by intense publicity, express a small part of American energy and aspiration.

This work for the blind must rank among the most practicable and beautiful expressions of this higher life of America.

CHRISTIANITY AND WAR[1]

DR. CRANE IMPLIES DISARMAMENT

IN your issue of February 3, 1915, at the end of the article entitled "Christianity and War," by Frank Crane, is the following: "Dr. Crane says: 'To end the six thousand years of bloodshed we must have one international court, . . . one international armed force to enforce its decrees.' Which would be war.—THE EDITORS." Is your conclusion correct? If, as is unquestionably planned, all nations are to disarm and agree to abide by the decrees of the international court, the international armed force would necessitate obedience, as resistance would be both impossible and hopeless. Indeed, if nations would disarm and agree to arbitrate all international differences, the *moral effect* of the court's decrees, based on impartial justice, would be such that obedience would follow as a natural sequence, just as our States now abide by the decisions of our Supreme Court, or corporations and individuals by the courts' decrees, as a matter of course and without resistance or the necessity of an armed force.—J. R., JR.

DEMOCRACY NEVER VOTES FOR WAR

Why would it be war? Does not international world government imply intra-national disarmament? Who, then, would oppose the enforcement of the decrees of this court? Or do you assume that the unarmed citizenry of the about-to-be-disciplined nation would rise against it? If so, you must assail the position taken by Dr. Crane when he says: "Wars are the acts of autocracy. No democracy ever votes for war. . . . A group of a few 'statesmen' precipitated the catastrophe."—O. K.

[1] See editorial on the subject of these letters.

DEMOCRACY DOES VOTE FOR WAR

Your note at the close of Dr. Crane's article seems to dispose of his points in the fewest possible words. One statement, however, made by Dr. Crane in paragraph three has been made so many times recently by so many writers as proof of the desirability of a democracy as against other forms of government, where the interests of peace are concerned, that its discussion might not be out of place. The statement is as follows: "No democracy ever votes for war." Did not the *vox populi* declare the Mexican War, even though it was an unpopular war with many? Were not the vast majority of the people of both sections of the country solidly behind the declaration of war in 1861? Am I correct in my recollection of the strong and earnest efforts made by President McKinley to prevent a declaration of war by Congress in 1898—efforts which were powerless as against this almost unanimous voice of "democracy"? Rome as a democracy carried on almost incessant warfare. China as an absolute monarchy remained at peace for centuries, and was almost never an aggressor.—E. P. H.

ENFORCING LAW IS NOT WAR

You are wrong in your declaration that enforcing the decree of an international court WOULD BE WAR. The execution of a murderer in accordance with the decree of a court IS NOT MURDER. Punishment of two school-boys for fighting IS NOT FIGHTING.—K.

If our country should intervene in Mexico to prevent the destruction of property owned by our capitalists, I should refuse to fight;

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but if our country, together with the rest of the American nations, should form a court in which to try the disturbers of the peace in Mexico, I should gladly enlist my six years of military training in the National Guard to help as a policeman in bringing the guilty to justice and re-establishing peace. I would not call such duty *war;* do you?—F. W. R.

Upon what argument do you base your conclusion that an international police court would mean war? Do you call the New York police force a war-like army? Is it the purpose of the officers of the law to wage war, bloody war, upon the offenders? Do you call it war when a State constabulary enforces obedience to the law upon a disorderly gang of strikers? Would it be war for an international police force to enforce international law upon a disorderly nation? I should answer all these questions in the negative, and I fail to see how Dr. Crane's statement concerning an interna tional force injures the logic of his contention.—A. E. B.

NO ARMED FORCE NECESSARY

I do not know why the Executive Department of a world court should have an international armed force to enforce its decrees, any more than the sheriff of the county should keep an armed force to enforce the decrees of the county court. Of course he uses force when necessary, which very seldom is.—G. W. P.

ARMED FORCE IS NECESSARY

Dr. Crane would have a court and then power given it to enforce its decrees. Is that not the power New York courts have? Who would call the police force and the constabulary anything but a power for peace? If this international court were made up of three delegates from each country, what nation would ever think of putting up a fight against the judgment of such a body. A court without power to enforce its decrees would barely receive attention at the present stage of world enlightenment.—F. S. M.

NON-INTERCOURSE A SUBSTITUTE FOR WAR

I agree perfectly with Dr. Crane's ideas concerning war. I believe it is the greatest crime in the universe. I am also as firmly convinced as he that it is braver and more like a Christian to "go out, stand against the wall, and be shot as a coward and traitor," than to go to war and risk eternal damnation for the murder of my brothers. On these scores I can sympathetically shake hands with Dr. Crane; but when he would attempt to prevent war by war, I must disagree with him for such gross inconsistency. Such an international court as he advocates would need no armed forces to enforce its decrees; for in these days when all parts of the world are so commercially interdependent, and in the days to come when such interdependence will become more and more marked, it would be necessary only to adopt a strict policy of commercial and communicational ostracism, and no country would long be willing to remain an outcast among nations with its people scorned and despised by all the rest of the world.—H. D. A.

HOW TO FIGHT

Has war ever settled anything that could not have been otherwise settled? We must fight, of course, but not with the sword; but with truth, knowledge, faith, and the Holy Spirit.—F. P. Q.

TRUST IN GOD

Justice and good will to all men are better protection than battle-ships and armies; in other words, the power of God is a real power that can be trusted. I believe The Outlook does advocate an international court properly policed, but I wish it would realize that the warring nations are looking to us as leaders towards peace, because we are largely free from the European difficulties in that line, and that we cannot be fully trusted in our moves towards peace if at the same time we are preparing greater armaments.—M. S. M.

DISARM THOUGH WE DIE

I am praying that this great people may soon be ready to disarm deliberately and stand before the world as a great host depending on the spiritual force of right rather than on the physical and brutal force of might. Would it be folly? Perhaps. Would it invite disaster? Possibly. But I can conceive of no greater service we could render civilization than to be willing to "lose our life" that the world might gain a truer, richer life.—F. A. M.

A REVISED READING OF THE NEW TESTAMENT

You are aware, perhaps, that the American Committee of Revision have given us a

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translation of Matthew v. 22 which leaves out the words "without a cause." Also that the quotation "Be ye angry, and sin not," which is taken from Ephesians iv. 26, is indicated in the margin of the Revised Version as a quotation from Psalm iv. 4. which reads in the Revised Version "Stand in awe, and sin not," which translation is certainly in keeping with the context rather than the other." —N. B. P.

THE STORY OF THE WAR

BY GREGORY MASON AND GEORGE KENNAN

I—A REVIEW OF THE WEEK

BY GREGORY MASON

THE catastrophe that overtook the Tenth Russian Army in East Prussia has been shown to be greater than at first supposed by the news that reached us during the week February 17 to February 24. The first claims of the Germans were that they had captured 26,000 prisoners. Now Russia admits the loss of an entire army corps (about 40,000 men), while Berlin credits Hindenburg with having rounded up 100,000 men and 150 guns, a force nearly as large as the entire Russian army that fought Napoleon at Borodino in 1812. At all events, even if the Russian losses are no greater than they admit, it is evident that the Czar's latest reach for East Prussia has cost him the loss in captured alone of a force equal in size to the entire mobile army in the United States.

These later reports have also corrected our first impressions of the geographical center of this East Prussian struggle. The heaviest fighting, it seems, was not on the shores of the coveted Masurian Lakes after all, but some distance north of the lakes, in the stretch of frozen waste between them and the Niemen River.

A QUESTION OF RAILWAYS

The official Russian report makes the story of this disaster simple enough. If we give the Germans due credit for their superior generalship and superior man-for-man all-around fighting ability, which six months' campaigning in Poland has made pretty plain, the prime reason for their most recent victory, as the Russians point out, can be expressed in two words—"superior railways."

To move their Tenth Army the Russians had only two railway lines available—the line from their base at Vilna to Insterburg and the railway from Bielostok to the Masurian Lake district. During the first few days of the Slavic rush these roads must have been nearly as much overcrowded as the Trans-Siberian Railway was during the Russo-Japanese War, and as the single available road from Torreon to Saltillo, Mexico, was last spring during General Villa's Saltillo campaign, when twenty troop trains carrying twenty thousand soldiers were pushed along with not ten miles separating the locomotive of the first train from the caboose of the twentieth.

The Russians admit that the German rapidity of concentration, made possible by the German "network of railways," took them off their guard. Hindenburg's heaviest blow was delivered in that gap between the Masurian Lakes and the Niemen River, which the Russians had vainly tried to close. It was during their retreat that most of the Russian prisoners were taken. There is an indication of poor generalship on the part of the Russian commanders in the heavy losses in prisoners which the Czar's armies have suffered in every setback since Tannenburg. In the confusion of every Slavic retreat whole masses of Muscovite soldiers have been wedged off from their fellows by the Germans and forced to surrender. It was not so much so when Napoleon was fighting Russia over this same terrain more than a hundred years ago. When Barclay and Bagration were falling back from Vilna and Wolkowysk toward Moscow, they did not allow themselves to be lured into large-scale running fights, such as are always dangerous through the opportunity they offer the enemy

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for enveloping movements. Instead, they kept always just ahead of the great Frenchman and wore him down, wore out his patience and wore out his nerves, which gave way while the French were gaining their technical victory at Borodino.

GENERAL FEBRUARY A TRAITOR

In fairness to the Russians, it must be admitted that the Tenth Army was handicapped in its scramble to get away from the stronger forces of Hindenburg by the treachery of the Czar's traditional ally—General February—who turned the retreat into a helter-skelter of men, horses, equipment, and wagon trains by coming up inopportunely with a blinding blizzard.

The Russians are now strongly intrenched from Kowno to Grodno on the Niemen, the river that stopped the Russian pursuit of the emaciated remnant of the *Grande Armée* one hundred and three years ago. From Grodno the Russian line swings off to the southwest, following in general the course of the Bobr and Narew Rivers and running into the Vistula near Plock, northwest of Warsaw.

To-day there are no Russians in East Prussia, and there seems to be no immediate likelihood of any penetrating therein if the Germans take ordinary precautions to guard what they have won. On the other hand, Warsaw seems as far as ever from the grasp of the Kaiser, for the positions now held by the Russians were carefully prepared by them weeks ago with an eye to securing adamantine impregnability.

AUSTRIA RESURGENS

The despised Austrians, however, are now reported to be threatening Lemberg, which the Russians captured on September 3. Czernowitz, the capital of Bukowina, was caught in the net of the Austro-German cleverly planned and quickly carried out turning movement, and, in fact, the Russian retreat in East Prussia and Poland has been matched by a general retrogression along the Carpathian battle wing. So far as territory held is concerned, to-day the Germans and Austrians could talk peace on terms much more favorable to them than three weeks ago.

Moreover, there is a moral value in these Russian reverses that must not be overlooked. Although Russia has millions of men to draw upon, and although the attempt to hold them back sometimes looks as futile as to try to sweep back the ocean with a broom, she may tire of throwing her myriads away in vain attempts to break the solid line of gray riflemen and say to France and England:

"You go ahead. It's your turn now to see what you can do against these German stone walls. I'll watch you for a while."

England and France, on the other hand, and France in particular, may become discouraged by the failure of the Slavic steam-roller to play its promised part, particularly if the Britons and Gauls in the long-heralded spring attack find the Teutonic defenses as inexpugnable as the Slavs have found them. From such a situation it is not impossible that there should spring up the dissension and discontent among the Allies that Germany has been praying for and scheming for since August, 1914.

We cannot yet know how effective was the recent bombardment of the forts of the Dardanelles by a force of British and French battle-ships and armored cruisers, but certainly this attempt to force a passage through these historic straits was one of the most serious that the Allies have yet attempted. The British Admiralty reported that all the Turkish forts on the European side of the narrow waterway were silenced by the first day's firing. Unofficial reports from Greece say that the second day's work of the big naval guns put the Asiatic forts out of action also. The Turkish official report, however, declares that the forts were unscathed, but that three of the attacking war-ships were damaged. There is small satisfaction to be gained from the comparison of such widely divergent accounts.

The Allies have a double reason for wanting to force the Dardanelles. Besides desiring to cripple Turkey by a blow at this vital spot they are anxious to clear a passage for the egress of the large stock of wheat now stored in Russian warehouses. France and England could well use this grain, while Russia could employ the credit for it to pay for munitions of war.

THE PERIL OF MINE AND SUBMARINE

Germany's submarine and mine enforced "blockade" of the British Isles, which went into effect on February 18, is to be taken more seriously than the neutral public at first seemed generally inclined to take it, judging by the results of the first six days that the "war zone" has been in operation. During

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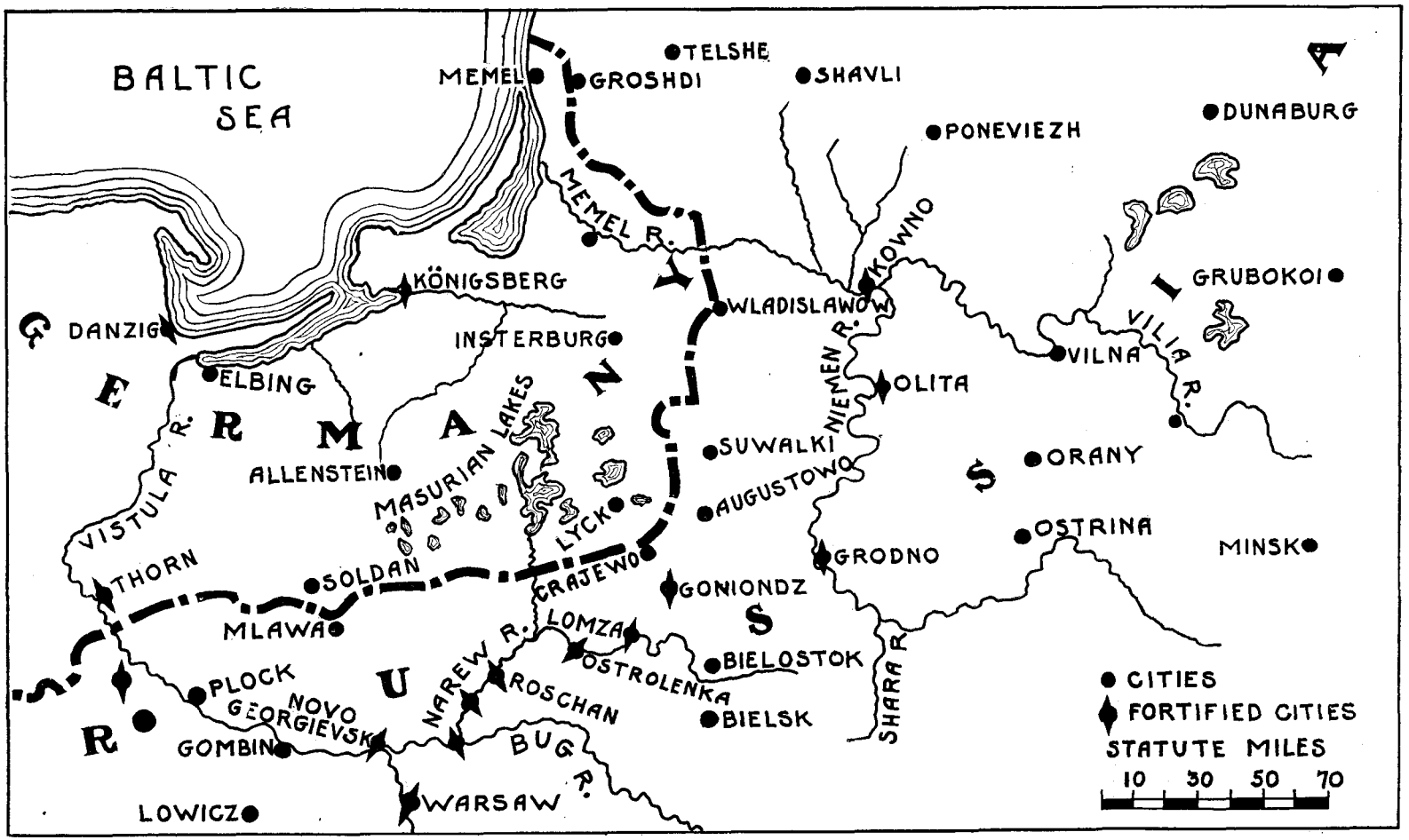

THE SCENE OF GENERAL VON HINDENBURG'S LATEST TRIUMPH

The Russians, seeking to win the frozen wastes between the Masurian Lakes and the Niemen River—at the point where it enters German territory and is renamed the Memel—drove down on East Prussia from their bases at Vilna and Bielostock. By a rapid concentration, made possible by his splendid railway system, Hindenburg met them in superior force north of the Masurian Lakes and utterly routed them, capturing, he claims, 100,000 prisoners. The Russian lines now follow the Niemen from Kowno to Grodno, and thence they extend southwest to Plock. East Prussia is now entirely cleared of the Czar's soldiers.

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these six days, February 18 to 23 inclusive, twelve merchant ships have been reported sunk in the waters within or adjacent to the war zone, while only an equal number of such vessels had been sent to the bottom in these waters during all the days of the war previous to February 18, according to statistics compiled by the New York "Sun." Twelve vessels in six days, or two ships a day, is the toll of the Kaiser's marine sappers and trappers. If that pace is maintained for a few weeks, it may be difficult to find merchant crews willing to enter the prohibited waters. Indeed, already the crews of several British, Dutch, and Scandinavian steamers have refused to embark for voyages through the danger zone, but in each case braver tars have been found to volunteer.

Of these twelve ships reported sunk, as we go to press, three are said to be British, one French, two American, and five Norwegian, while the nationality of one is yet unknown. According to the unofficial despatches, which must always be taken with much salt, the three Britishers, the Frenchman, and two of the Norwegians were sunk by submarines, while three of the ships from Norway and the pair from the United States seem to have foundered upon mines. No complications seem likely to arise through the sinking of these American ships, the Evelyn and the Carib, from the fact that neither was deliberately torpedoed, and that both were steaming off the routes laid down in the German marine instructions to aid vessels in avoiding sea pitfalls. The torpedoing of the two Norwegian vessels (if it is confirmed) is another and more serious matter.

The fact that the British Admiralty, after these six days of disaster to neutral shipping, closed the Irish Channel to ships of all nationalities, indicates that the British Government now considers the submarine peril almost as grave as it was painted in the fiction of Jules Verne and Conan Doyle.

FLAGS, WAR ZONES, AND DIPLOMACY

This week as last, the diplomacy of the war overshadowed the actual fighting in importance. And, as was the case last week, the relations between America and the belligerents were the theme of this diplomacy, which was expressed in three important communications, viz.: England's reply to our two-months-old protest against British interference with our trade on the seas, England's reply to our protest against the use of the American flag by British ships, and Germany's answer to our objections to the establishment of a maritime "war zone" dangerous to neutral shipping.

Of the three notes the least important, and therefore, according to diplomatic traditions, the longest, is Great Britain's communication in regard to her exercise of the right of searching American vessels for contraband. It was well disposed of by an editorial writer in the New York "Evening Post" in these words: "The most punctilious duelist, reading Sir Edward Grey's note to Ambassador Page, would have to confess that there is no 'fighting matter' in it. . . . It is as little belligerent as a lawyer's brief. . . . Nations do not go to war over prosy disquisitions like the British reply. . . . Sir Edward Grey has apparently been proceeding on the theory, so loved of certain public men, that most letters will answer themselves if you only let them lie long enough. . . . All the questions really in controversy between the two Governments have either been settled by the lapse of time and by concessions made by the English, or are in a fair way soon to be settled. The drowsy British note is certainly calculated to put the dispute to sleep."

The other British communication is shorter, more definite, and more conclusive.

The crux of the American note to England which brought forth this reply was the objection to "an explicit sanction by a belligerent Government for its merchant ships generally to fly the flag of a neutral power within certain portions of the high seas which are presumed to be frequented with hostile warships," *i. e.*, within Germany's submarine patrolled "war zone." To this Sir Edward Grey answers that "the British Government have no intention of advising their merchant shipping to use foreign flags as a general practice or to resort to them otherwise than for escaping capture or destruction." This is a general acceptance of the principal demand of the American State Department, and a denial of the German claim that the British Government has secretly ordered British ships to fly neutral flags.

WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?

To the American request that his Majesty's Government "will do all in their power to restrain vessels of British nationality in the deceptive use of the United States flag in the sea area defined by the German declaration, since such practice would greatly endanger

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the vessels of a friendly power navigating those waters, and would even seem to impose upon the Government of Great Britain a measure of responsibility for the loss of American lives and vessels in case of an attack by a German naval force," Sir Edward's reply is a polite denial.

After declaring that the United States "could not fairly ask the British Government to order British merchant vessels" to forego this use of the American flag, he goes on to disclaim the responsibility which we would have had England assume. He insists on the "obligation upon a belligerent war-ship to ascertain definitely for itself the nationality and character of a merchant vessel before capturing it, and, *a fortiori*, before sinking and destroying it;" and he adds: "If that obligation is fulfilled, the hoisting of a neutral flag on board a British vessel cannot possibly endanger neutral shipping, and the British Government holds that if loss to neutrals is caused by disregard of this obligation it is upon the enemy vessel disregarding it and upon the Government giving the orders that it should be disregarded that the sole responsibility for injury to neutrals ought to rest." Thus the responsibility which Germany has placed upon Great Britain is passed back to Germany with thanks, neither giving the United States promise of satisfaction.

To sum up, Great Britain has given us a reassuring pledge of acceptance of our main demand, while taking exception to some points of lesser importance in the American message. This agreement with us on the main issue raised, coupled with the very friendly tone of the British reply, will probably have the effect of closing the incident between the United States and his Majesty's Government. So far as international law has been involved in this matter, it is only international law in the making. The subject-matter has been mainly expediency and consideration, and while England's reply shows that she does not mean to be inconsiderate, it also indicates that she has no intention of abandoning what is with her a traditional maritime policy.

THE GERMAN REPLY

Like the British note, the reply of Germany to our protest against ruthless submarine warfare is very conciliatory in tone, but the German communication leaves the situation virtually *in statu quo*. For, after a great deal of denunciation of England for pursuing a course "contrary to international law" in stopping the ships of neutrals bearing food to Germany, and after a vast amount of pathetic appeal to neutrals to protest against these tactics of Great Britain, and after a further supplication to America to cease selling ammunition and arms to Britain, especially in view of the "heavy battle which Germany is waging for existence," the Kaiser's Government flatly "disclaims all responsibility" for "any unfortunate accidents that may occur" to neutral vessels within the war zone. Here the issue is joined bluntly enough, for the American protest to Germany promised to hold the Fatherland to "a strict accountability" for such "accidents."

Moreover, Germany takes this occasion to amplify her original war zone decree, and announces that this submarine-patrolled area will be closed with mines so far as is possible, and that Germany "will also endeavor to destroy hostile merchant vessels in every other way."

But, despite this threat, Germany apparently intends to be very careful not to mistake an American ship for a "hostile merchant vessel." The note says that "commanders of German submarines have been instructed . . . to refrain from violent action against American merchant vessels, so far as these can be recognized."

Germany has shown her hand clearly in this note. Her object is to arouse the ire of neutrals against Great Britain, and she has seized upon the use of neutral flags by England to excite this indignation. But, for all her wordy pronunciamentos, Germany will probably take care that her torpedoes are not exploded against the plates of American ships.

From an American point of view the German reply is unsatisfactory, for it leaves the situation essentially unchanged. If an American ship is sunk by a German submarine, serious complications might yet arise between us and Germany for anything that has been gained toward an *entente* by this correspondence with the Imperial German Government.

If true, there may be great significance in the report that the American Government has despatched confidential communications to our Ambassadors in Great Britain and Germany embodying American suggestions for the settlement of the deadlock between England and Germany over the British em-

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bargo on foodstuffs for Germany, and the German submarine warfare against merchant ships. As The Outlook goes to press, however, this rumor has not been officially confirmed.

New York City, February 24, 1915.

II—WAR RELIEF WORK IN RUSSIA

BY GEORGE KENNAN

SECOND ARTICLE

THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE AND THE ARMY

ONE of the most striking features of war relief in Russia is the practically universal participation of the common people. It is not an exaggeration perhaps to say that fifteen million peasant households at least have given money or goods to equip hospitals, to care for soldiers' families, to relieve the sufferings of refugees, or to increase the comfort of the men who are fighting at the front. Nine-tenths of these households have an annual budget of only two or three hundred dollars, and many of them are in very straitened circumstances; but no matter how poor they may be, they all give something.

Within the last five or six years there has been a great increase in Russia in the various forms of what may be called co-operative activity. Thousands of villages now have co-operative societies, credit unions, or consumers' leagues, and among their members are the best and most intelligent men in the peasant communes. In localities where there were no *zemstvos* (as well as in many where there were) these co-operative societies took the lead in relief work, and upon their initiative or under their direction there were collected not only considerable sums of money but large quantities of grain, clothing, and homespun cloth.[1] In the province of Orlof, for example, the peasants of a single district contributed 1,130 rubles in money and 12,000 yards of homespun linen; four *volosts* (cantons) in the province of Kostroma gave 1,600 yards of cloth and a large quantity of underwear; sixteen *volosts* in the province of Riazan contributed 3,318 rubles in money, 700 yards of linen, and several hundred bushels of grain; one *volost* in the province of Orlof raised 6,000 rubles for a forty-bed hospital; and nineteen communes in the province of Ekaterinoslav subscribed 31,000 rubles for a lazaret to accommodate 200 men.

Many of these communes, cantons, and districts specified the objects to which they wished to have their pecuniary contributions devoted, and it is a curious and interesting fact that not a few of the peasants asked that their money be used in the construction of aeroplanes! The village *skhod* (town meeting) of Kholiavinsk, in the province of Chernigof, subscribed 5,000 rubles and asked that it be distributed as follows: for general Russian relief, 3,000; for the Belgians, 500; for the Servians, 500; and for the Poles, 1,000. The village *skhod* of Yarylovitch, in the same province, gave 6,000 rubles, and asked that 5,000 be used for "general war relief;" 600 for "the relief of the suffering people of Poland;" and 400 for "the re-establishment of Belgium," with a special request that "the King of the Belgians be notified."

But the Russian people did not confine themselves wholly to work for the relief of wounded soldiers, soldiers' families, and destitute refugees from the war zones. They remembered also the soldiers fighting at the front. The various groups, classes, and social organizations in Moscow and Petrograd, such as the teachers, the authors, the newspaper men, the actors, the scientific societies, and the employees in the various Government departments, took turns in devoting a day, or a term of days, to personal solicitation and collection of money in the streets, and tens of thousands of rubles were obtained in this way for the purchase of supplies needed at the front, particularly towels, handkerchiefs, underclothing, and tobacco.

As winter came on there was an urgent demand for more warm clothing in all the Russian armies from the Baltic to the Carpathians, and immediately a myriad of collectors took the field in cities, towns, and

[1] Article by A. Borisof in the "Russkiya Zapiski," Petrograd, December, 1914.

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villages, carrying flags or riding in vehicles which bore the inscription:

"IT IS COLD IN THE TRENCHES!"

In the late fall and early winter there was hardly a human being in the Empire who did not hear or read these words every week, if not every day. The peasants in the villages appointed "war collectors" (*voennye shorshchiki*), who went from house to house collecting sheepskins and warm outer clothing for the soldiers, and the quantity obtained was so great that it nearly swamped the Government's facilities for reception, transportation, and distribution. The peasants sometimes almost stripped themselves in order to send warm clothing to the "cold trenches."

In one village in the province of Nizhni Novgorod a poor and aged peasant woman who was living alone had nothing that she could give except a towel. She gave that, and then, after the collector had left her little log house, she called to him, hobbled after him, and holding out a copper five-kopek piece (two and a half cents), said: "Here! Take this too. I was saving it for kerosene, but I can sit in the dark."

In the province of Tver there is a small and remote peasant village of fifty-seven houses known as Lavrentievka. When its inhabitants read in the newspapers that the soldiers were suffering from cold "in the advanced positions," they called a *skhod*, and decided that every household should furnish one pair of socks, one pair of mittens, and a suit of underclothing. The things were soon collected, together with a small package of matches and a few pounds of tobacco; and at a second meeting of the *skhod* the peasants decided that the contributions should actually be carried to the front by a representative of the village. They drew lots to determine who should go, and the honor fell to a *muzhik* who was somewhat advanced in years, but who was still able-bodied and strong. His fellow-villagers gave him for traveling expenses all the money they could raise, and, with a big bag of socks, mittens, and underwear on his back, he started for the "advanced positions." How he reached the front nobody knows; but certain it is that a few weeks later he was found by some soldiers wandering in the fields near the river Bzura, in Poland, only a mile or two from the front trenches.

They stopped him and inquired: "Where are you going, uncle?" (The Russian peasants address as "uncle" a man who is past middle life but is not yet old.)

"To the 'positions,'" he replied.

"What kind of 'positions'?"

"The 'advanced positions,'" he explained.[1] "I am carrying presents from our village to the soldiers in the advanced positions."

"But you ought to have given your presents to a committee there at home to be forwarded."

"*Neilza* [impossible], my dears!" said the bag-carrier. "The *skhod* so decided. They wanted to be sure, so they sent me. One's own eyes are see-ers, but another's are spectacles."

The soldiers took him to their commanding officer, who decided that a peasant who had come more than six hundred miles with a big bag of socks and mittens on his back was entitled to go to the "advanced positions." During a lull in the fighting, therefore, he was escorted by two soldiers to the firing trenches at the extreme front, and there he distributed with his own hands the socks, mittens, underclothing, matches, and tobacco which had been collected in a village of only three hundred and fifty inhabitants in central Russia.[2] This incident may seem to have little importance, but it is so characteristically Russian that I cannot bring myself to omit it.

When the soldiers at the front had been supplied with all the warm clothing that they needed, the Russian people took up the work of providing them with Christmas presents; and if every man in the camps and trenches did not receive something to show him that he was not forgotten on the great Christian holiday it was not the people's fault. Hundreds of car-loads of Christmas gifts went to the front from various parts of the Empire, including two from the school-teachers of Petrograd, three from the members of the Duma, a whole train of thirty cars from Moscow, and two trains carrying sixty-three car-loads from the city of Kharkov.

The actors and singers of the Imperial theaters in Petrograd devoted themselves exclusively to the collection of smoking materials. Putting on the costumes in which they were best known on the stage, they went through the streets in automobiles, and

[1] The word "position" has been borrowed from the English. It is not in the Russian peasant's vocabulary, and it is doubtful whether the villagers or their messenger had anything more than a vague idea of its meaning. They knew only that it was something at the front.

[2] Letter from P. Dikof, published in all of the Moscow and Petrograd newspapers.

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collected in a few days no less than 67,877 rubles. With this sum they bought (free of excise duty) 177,000 pounds of peasants' tobacco (*makhorka*), 56,700 pipes, 94,500 packages of matches, and 144 pounds of cigarette paper. These materials were sent to the front in the name of the Emperor and Empress.

Christmas trees or Christmas entertainments, with singing, orchestral music, moving pictures, story-telling, or tableaus, were provided for the wounded soldiers in something like eight hundred hospitals and lazarets. Wherever a spacious room was available a Christmas tree was set up, and even the severely wounded were brought to it on stretchers. In one of the large hospitals of Petrograd the lightly wounded soldiers themselves amused their comrades by acting in a play of their own selection entitled "King Adolph and His Disobedient Son." In these entertainments, or many of them, some of the best-known actors, singers, artists, and literary men of the Empire took part.

In Moscow the American colony provided Christmas presents for the wives and children of soldiers fighting at the front, and the apartments in which the distribution was made were crowded with women, boys, and girls, not only throughout Christmas Day, but for two or three whole days of Christmas week.

In the great spiritual uplift which followed the outbreak of war nothing was more remarkable than the ardor and earnestness with which the Russian people devoted themselves to the work of relief and mercy. As the Petrograd "Reitch" said in a Christmas day editorial:

"Everything selfish, everything purely personal, was subordinated or put into the background. In all classes of the population, among the rich as well as among the poor, the first and all-controlling thought was: 'What can we do for others? How can we warm the shivering, relieve the sufferings of the sick and wounded, and help those who are fighting for their country and for us?'"

Some peasants voluntarily taxed themselves in order to raise money for the relief of soldiers' families; others went into the fields and reaped the grain of women who had no helpers; well-to-do farmers who had threshing-machines lent them to families that had none; *zemstvos* collected seed for free distribution where supplies were short; and tens of thousands of acres of land belonging to soldiers at the front were gratuitously plowed and sown to winter wheat by their neighbors.

In Irkutsk, the capital of eastern Siberia, eight hundred *droshky* drivers determined to have a relief day of their own; and, putting on placards inscribed:

"CITIZENS! WE ARE WORKING FOR THE WOUNDED—HELP US!"

they devoted all their earnings and collections to the support of the Irkutsk war hospital.

One group of people in Petrograd undertook to supply the soldiers at the front with pencils and postal cards, while another group went into the post-offices and volunteered to decipher blind or erroneous addresses on soldiers' post-cards or letters. Many Russian peasants fighting at the front were almost illiterate, and thousands of their cards could not be delivered on account of blind or erroneous addresses. The relief volunteers undertook to read these communications, puzzle out the addresses, and find the people for whom they were intended. Hundreds of families would have had no tidings from husbands, fathers, brothers, or sons at the front if these relief volunteers had not taken charge of the letters and cards whose addresses the postal clerks were unable to make out.

Finally, co-operative societies and relief organizations of various kinds in all parts of the Empire purchased maps and subscribed for periodicals to be sent to peasant tea-houses in the villages, and there the *muzhiks* assembled to hear war news, measure distances on the maps with matches, and discuss the campaign in Poland and the strategy of the Grand Duke Nicholas.

I have not been able to notice, much less describe, a hundredth part of the relief work done in Russia in the first five months of the war; but in the light of the facts above set forth is it not evident that the "hordes of Russian barbarians" who threaten to overwhelm the civilization of western Europe are nothing but the scarecrows of German militarism or the nightmare apparitions of the excited German imagination? Pity, sympathy, generosity, and self-sacrifice are the flowers of civilization, rather than of barbarism.

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THE GERMAN NOTE

A POLL OF THE INTERNATIONAL PRESS

THE German Government's reply to the American Government's protest against the proclamation of a maritime war zone about the British Isles is, as is pointed out in the "Story of the War" in this issue, a refusal to alter the programme announced by the German Admiralty on February 4. The principal points brought out we here recapitulate as follows:

That Germany's action was made necessary by the British policy of attempting to cut off the German non-combatant food supply in violation of the principles of international war.

That holding up the American steamship Wilhelmina, with her cargo of foodstuffs for Germany, is a flagrant breach of international law.

That the German proclamation is in no way directed at the commerce of neutral Powers.

That Great Britain's course in ordering merchantmen to fly neutral flags, and equipping them with guns with orders to destroy enemies' submarines, renders ineffective the hitherto recognized right of visit and search.

That the proclamation will not be changed under existing circumstances.

GERMANY

As might be anticipated, the German newspapers approve the proclamation, and particularly support the contention that a submarine blockade is a legitimate counter-stroke to English methods of warfare. The German papers mention the friendly tone of the document, and conclude that, while the German Government will not recede from its position, it will do its utmost to prevent neutral shipping from coming to harm.

Count von Reventlow, the naval writer, says in the Berlin "Tages Zeitung" that the note shows that Germany is determined to go to the utmost limits compatible with the situation. He asserts that no fault can be found with the German declaration that Germany, like the United States, desires to prevent occurrences which would disturb the amicable relations between the countries. He continues:

One can read only with pleasure those parts of the German answer which refer to American supplies to England and France. We add this, that these shipments of weapons to our enemies have filled public opinion in Germany with deep indignation and bitterness against the United States. Statistics of the amount of these shipments show that the Germans are not justified in speaking of friendly relations.

Count von Reventlow declares that submarine commanders have been instructed to avoid damaging American ships recognizable as such, but points out that American ships can be recognized only if they are accompanied by American war-ships. He adds: "To assume that American flags make ships recognizable and assure their safety would be a gross misconception of the note."

The Berlin "Tageblatt" calls the German reply an "excellent document," and predicts that it will make a good impression in the United States. "We can only hope," the "Tageblatt" adds, "that the United States may understand the spirit breathed by the German note, which goes beyond the limits set by mere courtesy."

The Berlin "Post" says that the answer will not fail of its purpose if it convinces the Washington Government that neither the German people nor their leaders will "give way in weakly compliance or fear."

The Cologne "Gazette" declares that the note meets American wishes, especially with the advice to have war-ships convoy vessels, and that "whoever misunderstands the purpose and manner of the German course is no longer neutral in our eyes."

The Berlin "Morgenpost" says the note leaves no doubt that Germany will exercise her rights and make reprisals upon Great Britain.

The Berlin "Kreuz-Zeitung" says that, while the American view-point could not be shared, Germany has met America's desires as far as possible. It adds: "We believe it will be possible for the American Government to use the bridge pointed out in this note and thus do away with all difficulties."

ENGLAND

The issue on the material questions involved could hardly be joined with greater sharpness, thinks the London "Times," and continues:

President Wilson asked Germany to consider before action was taken the critical situation which the execution of the German menace to neutral shipping might create. She has considered it, and she tells him and tells the American people that she will pay no attention to their remonstrances. It is not for us to anticipate

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the judgment of American opinion on this document. We cannot remember anything quite like it in the history of recent diplomacy.

The London "Telegraph" thus particularizes:

Not only has the German Government the effrontery to attack the Administration at Washington and commercial men of the United States for doing what the enemy's traders did when Germany was neutral, namely, supplying munitions of war and other commodities to belligerent governments in position to accept delivery, but it demands that traffic recognized by international law and sanctioned by Germany's own acts in the past shall cease.

Says the London "Chronicle:"

For neutrals to sell arms to belligerents is not only regular practice well recognized and entirely permitted by international law, but it is one in which no country has indulged more largely during the past forty years than Germany herself. In the Russo-Japanese War, and again in the Balkan Wars, her great armament mongers, the Krupps and the rest, reaped a golden harvest; but what was sauce for her is not to be sauce for the United States.

FRANCE

The Paris "Figaro" finds the German reply humble and almost supplicatory. It says it begs for America's friendship and timidly reproaches the United States for partiality towards the Allies.

The Paris "Journal des Debats" says:

Germany is forty-five years late in perceiving that inoffensive populations deserve pity when they are reduced to famine. Her complaints, if well founded, do not give her the right to avenge England's wrongs toward her on American, Scandinavian, and Italian boats. . . . Germany's language is perfectly clear. She maintains her previous pretension to establish a blockade in a maritime region arbitrarily delimited, which is not effective. . . .

Telegrams show that the reply has produced in the United States keen disappointment and anger. This disappointment surprises us, as no other attitude could be expected from the Germans. The anger is natural and legitimate.

The Paris "Matin" sums up the reply as blackmail and blindness to the real state of events. "Germany," the paper says, "makes no real reply to the American warning and gives no assurances." In the same spirit the Paris "Temps" concludes:

Germany's reply in regard to Washington's warnings in regard to the grave consequences which her announced measure might have only affirms her confidence in the tolerance of neutral nations, even if by torpedoing their ships she should sow terror among them. President Wilson is an eminent jurist and Secretary of State Bryan a notable humanitarian, and Americans will be somewhat surprised at the German attitude. American opinion will see therein, perhaps, at once a challenge and blackmail.

AMERICA

The New York "Staats-Zeitung" reflects pro-German sentiment:

The answer of the German Government to the note of protest from Washington with reference to the creation of a zone of naval war, which includes all British waters, exhibits the following characteristics:

First, a tone which is throughout friendly and even obliging.

Second, objective statement of facts which is far distant alike from exaggeration and from vacillation.

Third, with all its emphasis on the German standpoint and the determination in which this is based, the openly spoken wish and purpose to modify the execution of the measures which have been made necessary by circumstances, and have been established as inevitable in the vital interest of the German people, by a consideration of neutral interests and neutral rights which is to be carried to the furthest possible point.

It emphasizes the attempt of England to deliver the entire civil population of Germany over to hunger, and deduces from such a measure, which sneers at every canon of humanitarianism, the right and, indeed, the duty of Germany to take retaliatory measures.

The Minneapolis "Journal" takes this general view:

In their essence the replies from Germany and Great Britain are the same. They both propose to make a harsh and stringent war upon commerce in the hope that hunger may become their chief ally. . . .

Both the English and the Germans accuse each other of gross and brutal contempt for international precedents, and declare that now they are bound by no legal consideration for each other's rights. . . .

The United States . . . is willing to uphold at all costs and every hazard its legitimate commerce, and to protect American lives with all the resources at its command; but this is a very different policy from deliberately seeking trouble in a narrow section of the seas where the geographical limitations have brought about a war area.

The New York "Times," a paper as friendly to the German people as it is opposed to their Government, affirms:

Issue was never joined in more courteous language or in a more friendly manner than by

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Germany in her reply to our note of protest. . . . Germany, as was to be expected, joins our Government in expressing the hope that misunderstanding will be avoided.

The weakness of the argument used by Germany in her reply is perfectly obvious. Accusing Great Britain of resorting to barbarous methods in warfare, of seeking to overcome Germany by starving her civilian population, the reply insists that the declaration of the war zone and of the intention to use submarines and mines to the extent of her power in destroying British commerce was a measure of retaliation forced upon her by the necessities of the case. She fails to see that she does not at all make good her accusation against England. Germany herself supplied her enemy with a valid defense to that charge when she issued the order taking Government control of all the stores of grain in the Empire.

The New York "Sun" thus summarizes the German document:

This amazing note means that Germany does not intend to be governed by the rules of civilized warfare in the extensive "zone" she has proclaimed, and that she will acknowledge no responsibility if neutral ships that fail to keep away are torpedoed and destroyed. If the design is to frighten neutral shipping, it may succeed with weak nations, but the United States would be untrue to its traditions, and in the sight of all nations it would show the white feather, if it did not enter a spirited, vigorous, and emphatic protest against the proposal of Germany to "run amuck" in British waters and blindly strike at friends found in her pathway as well as at the armed enemy.

The Rochester "Post Express" calls attention to "after the war:"

We shall not concede the right of any nation to interfere in any way with business we are carrying on in strict accordance with international law. With all our resources and to the full extent of our powers we will force an accounting with any nation which by intention or avoidable inadvertence sinks one of our ships. The more quickly and the more fully that is realized in Germany, the better will the chances be that she will have at least one great, fair, friendly neutral to say what may properly be said in her behalf when the war is over and the day of settlement has come.

SHOULD NEUTRALS REFUSE TO SELL ARMS TO WARRING NATIONS?

"WHY AID THE WOLF AND HAMSTRING THE LAMB?"

BY CHARLES NOBLE GREGORY

*The author of this article is the Dean of the Department of Law in the George Washington University, is one of the editors of the "American Journal of International Law," has been delegate to various legal and governmental conferences, and is a well-known contributor to leading English and American legal reviews, writing especially on international law. The recent discussion as to sale and export of arms by American manufacturers to the war combatants and the resolution introduced by Senator La Follette asking for a congress of neutral nations to consider, with other matters, the prohibition of such exports, make Professor Gregory's article especially pertinent just now.—*THE EDITORS.

NEUTRALS have been wont to yield their freedom of trade and commerce very grudgingly to the restraints and predatory tactics of war.

The history of neutral right is, moreover, one of growth and increasing assurance. The proposal now made in Congress to deprive the neutral producers of this country by statute of the liberty to furnish munitions of war to belligerents involves a great departure from the principles heretofore deemed settled in both international and municipal law.

One belligerent may, by international law, stop such shipments to her enemy if she can intercept them on the high seas or in belligerent territory, but the neutral shipper owes no duty to abstain from, and the neutral government no obligation to forbid, such sales or shipments.

Does the welfare of mankind require that

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these settled rights be curtailed and by statute made unlawful? It is respectfully submitted that it does not, but, on the contrary, requires their steadfast maintenance. If such change ought to be made in our statutes, it ought to be made in the statutes of other countries, and the rule of international law ought to be altered to conform.

The passage of such a statute in the United States would be a potent precedent for such general modification. But if such general modification were accomplished, then every country involved in war would be compelled to depend on her domestic supplies and preparation. She could in no way, by cash or credit, supplement her deficiencies from neutral markets. It is submitted that this limitation would tend to weaken the defense of peaceful powers suffering aggression and attack and to give an undue advantage to the aggressor. The assailant, and not the assailed, chooses the time for attack. Therefore, in the nature of things, he is prepared for war, and probably his victim is less prepared, like the hold-up man and his prey.

Nothing can prevent this except a universal system by which every nation, without intermission or relaxation, maintains its defenses and warlike supplies on a war footing of the highest efficiency and amplitude.

Under the proposed new rules its wealth and credit would avail a nation attacked absolutely nothing to aid the import of a pound of powder, a gallon of petrol, an ounce of copper, a gun, a saber, a harness, or a horse.

It has been currently reported that at the opening of the present war in August last an important European Power, on taking account of stock, found that she had but six rounds of ammunition per capita for her forces. She remained neutral and, owing to the special situation, escaped attack; but her lot would have been pitiable if, through improvidence and surprise, she had been reduced to subjection. Under the proposed laws, if attacked, she could not have recruited her military stores in outer markets, though she had cash and credit to spare. Though millions of gallant sons were ready to serve her, they would be without arms, and so hopeless.

It seems plain that a general change of law in the line of the proposed statute would impose a policy of most strenuous militarism on all nations, and much increase, instead of reduce, the necessity of maintaining a war footing in time of peace.

No nation could afford to be without complete supplies adequate for war always available within her borders. To be short in any essential might cripple her armies, lose her cause, and ruin her government and her people. Though the neighboring neutral territory were a land flowing with the milk and honey of war, and though her own coffers were filled with gold and her warehouses heaped up with the riches of field and mine, forest and loom, her peaceful accumulations would avail her nothing. Her riches would be a bait, not a resource of defense.

Her wealth does not imply that she has impoverished any other country. As Mr. John Bassett Moore recently pointed out, though trade involves competition, "it is in its essence an exchange of benefits." War may be called, on the other hand, "an exchange of injuries."

Dr. A. Pearce Higgins has mentioned that the Chinese Plenipotentiary at The Hague in 1907 asked what was to happen if one State declared war and the other did not want to fight? Dr. Higgins adds: "We frequently say that it takes two to make a quarrel, but we forget the fable of the Wolf and the Lamb."

Wars now are as sudden as conflagrations in their origin, and the advantages of preparation and initiative are immense. Why make them vastly greater? Why tempt to secret preparation and sudden aggression by greatly reducing the resources and avails of the defending power? Why aid the Wolf and hamstring the Lamb?

The resources of neutral commerce play an immense part in keeping the balance and so preserving peace between nations. If one country gives her energy mainly to forts, arsenals, troops, and ships and munitions of war, and if another neglects all these in order to accumulate flocks and herds and all the treasures of the peaceful mart, the military nation will have a decided advantage in the contest. If, however, the rich Quaker has free opportunity rapidly to transmute his wealth into defensive supplies in neutral markets, then he is formidable and not helpless when attacked. Why deprive him of this, and make aggression easy and deadly, and defense feeble and hopeless? Wars are sudden. The rules of the Hague Conference require a declaration of war, but do not require any, even the briefest, time to intervene between the declaration and the attack; the blow may instantly follow the threat. More-

(Continued on page following illustrations)

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Current Events Pictorially Treated

PHOTOGRAPH BY BAIN NEWS SERVICE

TRYING TO PROTECT NEUTRAL SHIPS FROM GERMAN SUBMARINES

Several vessels that have sailed from New York since the German "war zone" edict was announced have carried their names and home ports painted in large white letters on their hulls; the purpose being to convey to belligerent submarines the idea, "I'm a neutral; don't torpedo me!"

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GOTTLIEB VON JAGOW, THE GERMAN FOREIGN SECRETARY

A heavy responsibility rests on the shoulders of Herr von Jagow as the mouthpiece of the German Government in the momentous discussion between that Government and our own in relation to the rights of neutral vessels in the "war zone"

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REPRESENTATIVES OF TURKISH RELIEF WORK IN THE GERMAN CAPITAL

Analogous to the Red Cross movement in Christian lands is the "Red Crescent" of the Mohammedans. Officers of this organization, visiting Berlin to enlist the help of Turkey's ally, Germany, in aid of the Turkish Ambulance Corps, are here seen

PHOTOGRAPH BY AMERICAN PRESS ASSOCIATION

"WOOLEN WEEK" COLLECTIONS FOR THE SOLDIERS

Notwithstanding the omnipresent activities of the German Government, it is not averse now to receiving the help of philanthropically disposed private citizens in caring for its vast armies. The picture shows school-boys taking donations of woolen goods to a central collecting station, whence they are to be distributed later to the men at the front

RED CROSS AND RED CRESCENT IN BERLIN

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PHOTOGRAPH BY HARRIS & EWING

THE JAPANESE COMMISSIONER TO THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION, WITH VICE-PRESIDENT MARSHALL

Admiral Dewa (on the right) is in this country as the guest of the United States and particularly of California. He will visit the Exposition in company with President Wilson. The photograph shows him on the steps of the Capitol at Washington, D. C., accompanied by the Vice-President

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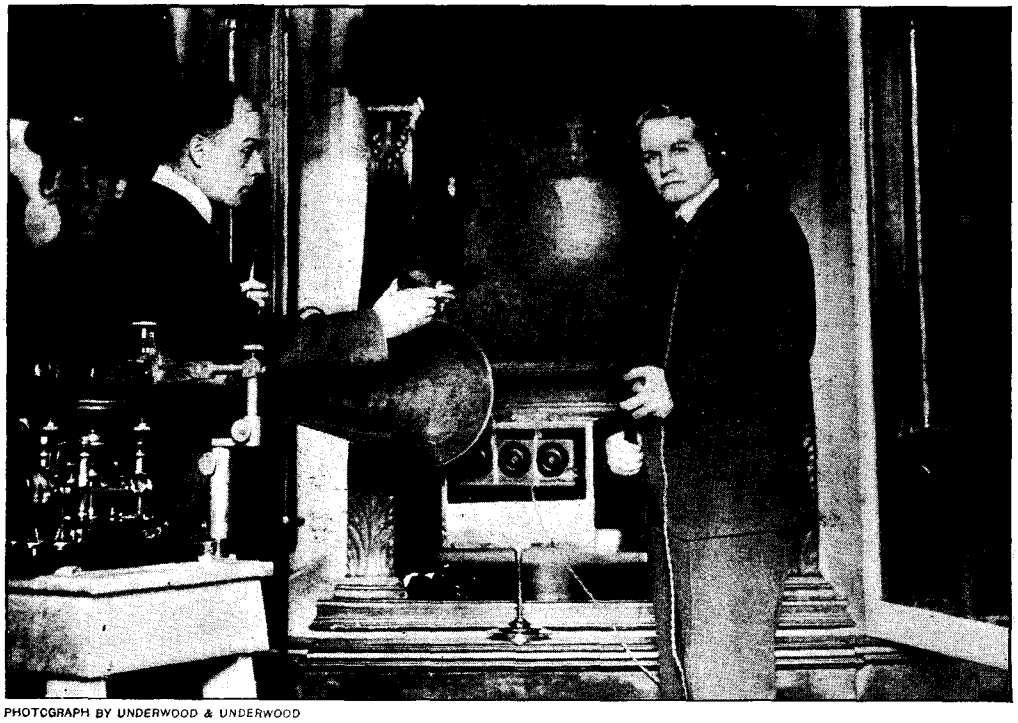
PROMINENT PENNSYLVANIANS LISTENING TO THE RINGING OF THE BELL AS THE SOUNDS WERE TRANSMITTED TO SAN FRANCISCO

Ex-Governor Kingsbury, John Wanamaker, Mr. Cohen, Mayor Blankenburg of Philadelphia, President Rea of the Pennsylvania Railroad, and ex-Governor Stuart are shown (left to right) in the picture



PHOTOGRAPH BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

TAPPING THE BELL TO TRANSMIT THE SOUND TO SAN FRANCISCO; THE TAPS BEING RECORDED ON THE GRAMOPHONE

THE "LIBERTY BELL" HEARD ACROSS THE CONTINENT

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LOADING A FLOTILLA OF SCOWS FOR THE HUDSON BAY TRADING POSTS

Upon the vast network of inland waterways of the Hudson Bay regions these scows, containing trade goods and provisions, are floated down with the current, which here flows north, to the far outposts. They are then loaded with furs and "tracked" back against the current. The scows here shown are being loaded for the "trip in"

INDIANS OF NORTHERN CANADA, WHOSE SUPPLIES HAVE BEEN CUT OFF AND WHO ARE IN DANGER OF STARVATION

PHOTOGRAPHS BY F. J. DICKIE

A SILVER BLACK FOX, ONE OF THE MOST PRIZED OF FUR-BEARING ANIMALS, IN A TRAP

THE FUR INDUSTRY OF NORTHERN CANADA

See paragraph on this subject, with reference to present conditions, on editorial pages

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PHOTOGRAPH BY PAUL THOMPSON

IMMIGRANTS WHO HAVE PASSED INSPECTION AT ELLIS ISLAND ON THEIR WAY TO BATTERY PARK, NEW YORK CITY

PHOTOGRAPH BY PAUL THOMPSON

A SCHOOL FOR YOUNG IMMIGRANTS WHO HAVE BEEN DETAINED AT ELLIS ISLAND

There are many immigrants at Ellis Island who have failed to pass the tests imposed by the Government and must be detained. They cannot be deported as usual, for war conditions prevent. For their benefit a school has been started recently, with teachers supplied by the New York City Board of Education

NEW ARRIVALS AT THE GATEWAY TO THE LAND OF PROMISE

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A JAPANESE PLAYGROUND EXHIBIT

Japanese children are often supposed by Americans to be invariably "good," but their own parents and educators, following Western examples, have found it desirable to provide a better educational environment for them than that of the city streets. This exhibit illustrates the advance of the Japanese along these lines. The part of the exhibit here illustrated represents "a street scene, showing the bad influences of the street, and a clean little children's corner"

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over, out of the forty-two Powers signing this Convention, fourteen—just one-third—have never ratified it.

The English Foreign Secretary, Lord Granville, spoke with the Under-Secretary at three or four o'clock in the afternoon, and was assured that there were no foreign complications to debate, except a capture of Englishmen by Greek brigands; but within two hours after, this drowsy security was startled by the news that a Hohenzollern had accepted the Spanish throne, and in eight days the Franco-Prussian War was declared. In the Russo-Japanese War a vicious naval raid preceded a declaration. In the Turco-Italian difficulties complaints were first heard September 25, 1911, and war was declared on the fourth day after, and hostilities at once began. The present war, which involves more than half the earth, and whose zone tends to extend rather than to decrease, came so suddenly that, as we know, thousands of travelers were surprised in its midst. They either could not escape, or, if they got away, did so by sudden flight with baggage left behind.

Lecky, the historian of the development of European civilization and morals, finds an encouraging circumstance in the fact that, under modern rules and conditions, not the rudest and hardiest, but the richest nations are strongest in war. Since the rich are the most peaceful, he concludes that this fact tends to preserve peace in the world. This beneficent predominance of the richest nations would be impaired if in war they could buy only at home and not in neutral markets. Modern wars are not long. There are no thirty-year wars nor seven-year wars now. They are whirlwind attacks, by land and sky, sea and the depths of the sea, with vast and appalling engines and enormous expenditures of life and treasure, with effects of widespread desolation and universal ruin and distress. These sudden, devastating assaults are met by desperate and heroic resistance and counter-attacks. No nation or combination of nations can long maintain a struggle which quickly exhausts those it does not wholly destroy.

Why by a change of law and policy aid and encourage the predatory policy and debilitate defense? Such change must stimulate war and discourage peace. That maxim of the law, "*Potior est conditio defendentis*" ("stronger is the position of the defendant"), which requires one demanding a change of ownership or of possession to prove himself entitled to it, which favors existing right until a better is established, which presumes innocence until guilt is shown, is founded in justice and the deepest wisdom. It tends to stability and repose.

It is respectfully submitted that the announcement in a temperate and considered communication by the Department of State that this Government would adhere to the rule fully settled in international law, fully sanctioned by the practice, both recent and ancient, of all the principles in the present unhappy contest, and by our own practice as well, has given the widest satisfaction. Such rule permits a belligerent to procure munitions of war in any neutral territory he chooses. It holds that the neutral government has not the slightest obligation to prevent the export of such articles to any belligerent; that the belligerents may seize such supplies going to their enemies on the high seas or in belligerent territory if they can, but that there is no other way of arresting them; that neutral contracts for furnishing such supplies and delivering them are neither immoral nor illegal; that courts of justice will fully recognize and freely enforce them and give damages for their breach, although courts of justice wholly refuse all aid to illegal or immoral engagements.

This was held by the English courts in Ex Parte Chavasse, In Re Grazebrook; 34 L. J. N. S. Bankruptcy 17 (Scott's Cases on International Law, p. 779). Lord Chancellor Westbury in that case quoted and relied upon the language used by Mr. Justice Story (our most learned judge in international law) for the United States Supreme Court in the Santissima Trinidad (7 Wheaton, p. 240), that "there is nothing in our laws or in the law of nations that forbids our citizens from sending . . . munitions of war to foreign ports for sale. It is a commercial adventure which no nation is bound to prohibit and which only exposes the persons engaged in it to the penalty of confiscation."

A like doctrine was held by the English courts in 1905 in a case arising from a shipment of contraband during the Russo-Japanese War. See Law Guarantee and Trust Soc. vs. Russian Bank (K. B. Div. H. Ct. "Law Times," Vol. XVIII, p. 503).

It is believed that the doctrine of these cases is fully supported by the best text writers. The necessary conclusion is that the general rule now in force is wiser, more conducive to peace, and more beneficial to mankind than the rule of the proposed statute.

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BELGIANS AT WORK FOR ONE ANOTHER

BY TYLER DENNETT

*The author is the pastor of the Plymouth Congregational Church in Los Angeles. Last fall he made a trip, mainly on foot, through Belgium. He talked with many men prominent in the relief work—with college professors, clergymen, and many others.—*THE EDITORS.

"THE Germans told me to go ahead and open my mills," remarked one of the wealthiest manufacturers in Belgium. "I took them at their word and tried it. It is impossible. I cannot get a ton of coal."

"How many people could you employ if it were possible to start your industry?" I asked.

"Normally I have two thousand women and girls in one place and nearly as many men in another. If I could begin work again, it is safe to say that more than five thousand people could go to work again."

Industry in Belgium is at a standstill even in those districts which have not been devastated. There is no train service for the benefit of the public. The telephone and telegraph systems have, of course, been appropriated for military purposes. There are no mails. The only way to send a letter is by messenger, and such work is reckoned among the extra-hazardous professions for all concerned. Some letters may be forwarded and others are forbidden. Too many prominent citizens have been, or are now, in jail for "forwarding letters" to make this means of communication popular. All Belgians are forbidden to cross the Dutch border. There is practically no communication with the outside world except as thrifty Dutchmen slip in and out of Belgium carrying messages by memory. One seldom sees even a silver coin in circulation. The currency is paper and nickels. One can easily see that under such conditions the re-establishment of industry in Belgium for the present is impossible.

Some efforts have been made to open shops and factories for the employment of destitute women and girls in philanthropic enterprises. Madame van Schelle, an American lady, the wife of the Belgian Commissioner at the St. Louis Exposition, has started a lace factory at Hoogstraeten where she gives work to fifteen hundred women. When one takes into consideration the unsettled conditions of the country, this undertaking appears to be very successful. Nevertheless it is a philanthropy, not a business, and serves chiefly to show how absolutely impossible it is to-day for the vast majority of the people of Belgium to earn any money with which to buy their daily bread. Several prominent citizens who are now giving all their time to the relief work, whom I met while visiting in the stations of the Red Cross and other philanthropic agencies, seemed to be gravely concerned over what may be the demoralizing effects on the laboring people of this long period of alms-giving and alms-receiving. "We fear," said a professor in the University of Brussels, "that many of our people will find it very difficult to settle down to work again after this idleness."

On the other hand, I was greatly impressed with the spirit in which the people of Belgium, rich and poor alike, have joined together to help one another. From the very first days of the invasion each citizen seems to have placed his means and his services at the call of his brother's need. In Belgium it is generally regarded as a reproach to have become a "refugee," escaping to Holland, France, or England, if the person who fled was in any way capable of rendering assistance to his stricken country. The needs of the hour have called into being among the Belgians themselves organizations of wonderful efficiency for the administration of relief work. Business men, lawyers, doctors, priests, professors, have left their desks where there was no work to do and volunteered to serve at the various relief stations. As the American relief contributions reach Belgium they are being distributed by the Belgians themselves with a despatch and order which rivals that of our best philanthropies in America.

When the Germans occupied Schaerbeeg, a suburb of Brussels, they ordered the city hospital to be cleared within six hours. They required all available space for their own wounded. What was to become of the regular patients? The citizens of Schaerbeeg answered this question almost before they asked it. Not far off was a fine technical-school building. Within the required six

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hours this was improvised into a hospital, the patients were transferred, and the five babies who were born there that night are alive to-day to witness to the ready sympathy and quick efficiency of Schaerbeeg. A few days later the Germans demanded that this new hospital turn over its medicines and operating-room equipment. With something of that same intrepid spirit with which Liège held out for twelve days, the Belgians succeeded in smuggling the larger part of their supplies out of the building and distributing them around in the homes of the citizens, where they lie hidden to-day.

The patients from Schaerbeeg's emergency hospital have now been transferred elsewhere. At present the building is used as a center for the remaking and distributing of clothing. The aunt of the Burgomaster of Brussels is the volunteer superintendent. Clothing is being sent in from all over the city. Experienced tailors and dressmakers sort and examine it, then it is sent to a large hall where seamstresses who have been thrown out of paid employment come regularly as volunteers to repair and remake the garments. Downstairs is a registration bureau where the facts in regard to each applicant are carefully tabulated on cards, and this bureau is in constant communication with a central office to make sure that applicants are worthy and not merely making the rounds to see what they can get. Not long ago in London it became necessary for the Belgian Relief Committee to send out a notice that they had already received far more gifts of riding-breeches than they were able to make use of, and therefore they appealed to the public not to send any more. In Schaerbeeg, rich and poor seemed to be sharing out of their common need. The clothing which I saw appeared to be of the finest quality, gathered from overstocked wardrobes or carefully selected for its utility.

In this same city there is at least one other illustration of the fine spirit which has been born out of Belgium's travail. Not only are they caring for the needs of their own people, so far as their very limited resources will permit, but their philanthropy had been broad enough to cover the necessities of a hundred and thirty French refugees and hostages who were stranded in Schaerbeeg one night last August. A few days previously a group of French villagers, most of them old women and mothers with small children, had become confused in their wanderings and entered the German lines in northern France. An empty supply train happened to be waiting at the station, and they were bundled into it by officers eager to get them out of the way. Later twenty or thirty men who had been captured as hostages were added to the number. When the train reached Schaerbeeg, it was needed for other purposes, and these hapless people were set out in the street, where citizens found them. The next day a gentleman put his fine new reinforced concrete stable at the disposal of the parish; beds and a cooking range were installed, and by evening the whole party was comfortably provided for at the expense of the city. Down in the basement the able-bodied men cut wood for the parish; tradesmen contribute meat and other foodstuffs as they can; the women knit, sew, and look after one another's babies. They are a well-fed, well-clothed, and contented colony. Only the fact that they cannot communicate with their families in France disturbs them. I talked with one man who had been a station-agent in Normandy. In the middle of the night a soldier had pounded on his door with the butt of his rifle and ordered him out into the street. He had put his shoes on while standing in line with the others, wondering what was to happen to them. A few minutes later the others were all marched off in the darkness. That was the last he has seen or heard of them. He has a wife and four children somewhere.

A gentleman offered to guide me up to the University in Brussels, which is now the headquarters for the various relief agencies. He was telling me enthusiastically of his interests in scientific agriculture and stock-breeding, in which I was surprised to find that he thinks America leads. Just as the conductor came along to collect the fares he was in the midst of a story of how he had bought some thoroughbred horses from Mr. Astor. They had taken several blue ribbons. "I am going to allow you to pay the fares," he remarked, as the conductor held out his hand. Later he explained, "I am practically penniless." Such a confession is not uncommon among people in Belgium who have never known want before.

In one of the class-rooms at the University sat a colonel in the army. He had been wounded in the retreat to Antwerp, and thus became detached from his command. Now, having recovered from his wound, he spends his time wrapping up bundles of clothing which are being sent to the Belgian soldiers

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imprisoned in Germany. A professor from the University weighs the packages, a lawyer copies off the names and addresses, and a countess directs the operations. A long line of women and children reaches out into the corridor. Each person has a bundle of winter clothing which she is bringing in to be sent to her husband or son. These packages are subjected by the German authorities to very stringent regulations. For instance, it is forbidden to send caps or hats to the prisoners, as these might render escape easier. One corner of the room is piled high with discarded headgear which has been removed from the bundles.

Count Somebody (it is wiser not to use his name) entered the room while I was there. He whispered something to these people back of the long table and their eyes lighted with pleasure. "He has just received a message from our King," explained my guide. "Our King wishes us to know that he is pleased that we have remained here in Belgium to help our countrymen. He hopes that we will remain at our posts, come what may." The welding together of all classes of society into one vast brotherhood is the most conspicuous feature of this calamity which has fallen upon Belgium.

In the course of my visit to Belgium, during which I visited many of the stricken towns in the path of the German advance—traveling over one hundred and fifty miles, for the most part on foot, and interviewing, both in Brussels and elsewhere, the most reliable citizens I could meet—I found no ground for the charge that the Belgians are not trying to help themselves. Long before they knew that they could expect aid from America they were joining together to help one another to the very limit of their resources. Everywhere I went I asked if the German soldiers quartered in the towns as guards were paying for what they obtained from the shops. In most cases I was told that they were. Nowhere did any one tell me that the military government had, up to that time (December), been helping to feed the people. Some very well informed people with whom I talked on this subject were very positive that as late as the last of October or the first of November foodstuffs were being requisitioned and sent off by train in the direction of Germany. For these the soldiers always left a written statement of what they had taken, with a promise that later the food would be paid for. Everywhere I went the people asserted that at least by the first of January the food supply of Belgium would be exhausted, and that from then onward Belgium would have to depend entirely upon supplies sent in from the outside.

In one of the partly devastated towns east of Brussels, where there was still posted the notice, "It is not permitted to burn houses without permission of the commandant," I spent the night at a boarding-house recently opened by a widow and her daughter. Formerly they had kept a small hotel farther down the street. This was burned when the Germans entered the town. Upstairs they showed me the salvage which they had recovered from the ruins of their former home, mostly broken tableware and half-melted spoons. An American ice-cream freezer—what was left of it—stood in the middle of the room. Then they brought out an old cap with a ragged hole in one side, also the picture of another daughter standing by her fiancé. Father and daughter had been shot in the street by soldiers who were probably drunk at the time. The mother is now well past fifty years of age, yet she and the only child who has been spared to her are beginning life over again. An hour before I had seen them in the room below serving the soldiers who came in for food and beer, and wondered if it could be true that they had so quickly forgotten their loss and grief. Then they seemed cheerful and cordial. Now the doors were locked, the shutters up at the windows. In the dim light from a single candle, surrounded by the reminders of their old estate, I could see their lips quiver as they told the story of those first awful days of the invasion.

I will not repeat more of the story, for I am not permitted to give their names, and of course cannot assume responsibility for the truth of what they said. I write not for the purpose of proving what the Germans did when they first entered Belgium, but rather to show what the Belgians are now doing for themselves. They meet with courtesy and politeness the soldiers who have taken possession of their country, make every effort to obey the military law, and then seek to rebuild their homes and recoup their shattered fortunes. Examples of such heroism as that of these two women abound in every city and village I visited.

One can easily see how such self-restraint might be mistaken for cordiality to the Germans and how the unwillingness of the Belgians

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to capitalize their poverty for the sake of securing relief supplies from America might seem to indicate that they are not in such desperate straits as has been represented. They are, for the most part, submitting to a bridling of their tongues that they may retain their freedom to help one another. Many citizens told me that they would have long since left the country, with its atmosphere of misery, fear, and suspicion, had it not been for this sense of obligation toward those who are unable to escape.

THE CHURCH OF THE FLAMING HEART

BY TEMPLE BAILEY

I

THE Wise Old Woman sat warm and content in her century-old stone cottage. There was snow outside, and bitter cold, and darkness. Light within the cottage came from a candle set in a brass holder, and from the fire which was the flaming heart of the little room.

Light, too, came from the pages of a book which lay wide open on the table.

It was from this book that the old woman read:

"*Awake, awake, put on strength, O arm of the Lord; awake, as in the ancient days, in the generation of old.*"

And when she had read, she rose refreshed, and the food which she presently set before her was not more needed for her body than were these words for her spirit. For the food which the Wise Old Woman gave her body was simple—a cup of hot soup and dry bread—but the food which she gave her soul was manna from heaven.

And when she had eaten, she fed the cat that kept her company and the dog that guarded her, and composed herself for the night.

But before she went into the inner room to sleep she knelt by the little table and laid her folded hands upon the pages of the Book, and this was her wise and simple prayer:

"O Lord, send to the world one who shall be a leader of men! Give us a leader, Lord, for thy Son's sake!"

And when she rose from her knees her face was illumined, for this was the prayer which she had prayed for forty years, and she had faith to believe that she should live to see her prayer answered.

Now that night, while the Wise Old Woman slept, far away in a big city men were writing and great presses were turning and printing the pages that people were to read from sea to sea. And on those pages were printed many things which were true and many things which were false, but there was nothing more false than the things which were written about the redemption of the world.

"Make laws," said the black-type words; "legislate crime out of existence. Make the employer pay the working-girl the wage which shall save her from sin. Close the saloon, that men may not drink. Build homes for the women of the streets, that they may at last lift up their heads. Prohibit marriage between those who are diseased. Prevent the birth of the unwelcome unborn. Bring eugenics to the settling of your problems! Bring science! Bring law! Ring out the old, ring in the new! And the world shall be a lovely place!"

And the men who wrote these things believed them, or thought they believed, and the people who read cried: "Here is the remedy—to legislate, to prohibit. People sin because they can't help it. They are caught in the tentacles of the modern octopus. The poor are wicked because of their poverty. The rich are wicked because of the System. Who that is among us should cast a stone?"

But there was one who read these things who had a clearer vision. In her stone cottage the Wise Old Woman put on her spectacles and perused the pages of the paper which had been left on her doorstep by the farmer who brought her milk.

And as she read the Wise Old Woman began to shiver and shake. "O Lord," she said at last, "who is to be the one to show them the way?"

And all the morning as she went about her work the words that she had read weighed

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upon her, until at last she opened the Book and read, and was sustained and comforted.

And at noon there came to her a letter. It was brought by a postman whose sleigh had come somewhat slowly through the drifts. It was a fat letter, and the thin sheets within were crossed and recrossed by fine writing.

"I want you to visit me," said the writer. "I am alone with all my money. I thought of you the other day, and of how we went to school together up there in the hills, and of what a good little thing you were. And I am wondering what your life has been. Won't you come and tell me? And stay with me until spring."

When the Wise Old Woman had read the letter, she laid it within the pages of the great Book on the table. And again she went about her work.

And in the afternoon she answered it, and said that she would come. And she packed a little trunk and a little bag, and then she ran across the road and arranged that her cat and dog should be cared for at the big farm-house, and that her cottage should be aired and opened once a week.

And, having thus relieved her mind of material things, she lighted her candle and read from her Book, and had her supper, and prepared for sleep, and again she prayed. And for the first time in forty years the form of her prayer was changed.

"O Lord," she said, "use me as you will. After forty years I feel that thou art sending me forth—to search for the one who shall come after me, and who shall cry to the world, 'Awake!'"

And the next morning she turned the key in the door of her little cottage and carried her cat across the road, and her dog looked after her wistfully as she went away in the farmer's wagon.

And so she came to the city and to the house of her friend—a plain little figure in a shabby bonnet. And no one in all the great metropolis knew that she was wise, or that she had prayed for forty years.

Now her friend was called Adah, for she and the Wise Old Woman had been named at a time when names had meanings; and the Wise Old Woman's name was Esther, which means a star.

In Adah's house there were a chef and a butler and a housekeeper and a footman and a chauffeur, and a man for this and a maid for that—and everything was like clockwork, and was as polished as machinery and as cold. And the Wise Old Woman missed the companionship of her cat and dog, and the light of her candle and of her fire; but not a word of this did she say to her friend, for she had learned in their moment of meeting that her friend needed her.

For the Wise Old Woman had grown old pleasantly and sweetly and with dignity, so that her age was a time of opal twilight with stars shining and a dawn to come. But Adah's age had caught her unawares, and she had patched it and powdered it and massaged it and rouged it; and now it was a time of wan moonlight with a wrack of clouds and the awful dread of darkness.

And it was with fear in her eyes that she told Esther, feverishly: "I can't carry my money with me. I want to know what to do with it after I am dead."

And as she spoke the Wise Old Woman had a vision of those early days when Adah had given away her wax dolls on the eve of her departure for boarding-school. "I shouldn't part with one of them," she had said to little Esther, who had never had a wax doll, "if I could take them with me."

And as it had been with the wax dolls, so it was now with a great fortune.

And when the Wise Old Woman had pondered and prayed, she came to Adah and said: "Build a church."

"The city is full of churches," Adah told her. "There is no room for another."

"There is room for the church that I would have you build," said Esther, and she went to her great bedchamber with its carved mahogany and its silken hangings and its swinging silver lamp, and there lay the great Book open on a little table. And she brought the book to Adah and read:

"*Awake, awake, put on strength, O arm of the Lord. Awake, as in the ancient days, in the generation of old.*"

"The church that you must build," said the Wise Old Woman, "shall have those words carved above the door, that the people who enter in may read, and those who stand in the streets."

"You were always a good little thing," said old Adah, vaguely, and she laid her shaking hand on the strong shoulder of the Wise Old Woman; "when I am dead, you shall build my church."

"Build it now."

But Adah shook her frizzled head, and rang for her maid, and went away—a shivery old skeleton in a rose-red gown with rouge

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on her cheeks—and as she went she said, "After I am dead, after I am dead, you shall build a church—"

But the next morning, as the two old women drove through the city streets, Esther pointed to a certain corner which faced a park and said, "I would have you build it there."

And Adah, peering out, asked, "Why?"

"Because then those who preached could speak to the people in the park, and could ask them in—"

The park was full of wayfarers out of work, and weary, and in despair.

"You can't do anything for them," said Adah, who was worldly-wise; "they can't escape their destiny. They are derelicts—doomed to failure—"

But the Wise Old Woman turned and looked back. "What an army they would be," she said, "if they were inspired by an ideal!"

A gleam of interest shone in Adah's old eyes. "What do you mean?" she asked.

"I mean," said the Wise Old Woman in her clear young voice, "I mean that it is time for the world to wake up."

II

Yet one may talk and talk of the world's awakening, and find no way to stir it from its drowsiness.

But the Wise Old Woman began, not with the world, but with Adah. The thing she had to do was to wake up Adah. It took time, but it was finally accomplished. And then Adah began to build her church.

In the weeks that followed, the two old women went over the city hunting for the men who could plan and buy the materials for the church and build it.

"The work must be done by strong men," said the Wise Old Woman; "not one shall be laid by a weakling."

But when she came to pick out her men it was found that she did not choose those whose muscles stood out. She chose rather those whose faces grew radiant as she talked to them of the edifice which was to grow by their labor.

Yet as the church grew it did not seem to differ greatly from other churches. It was long and wide and dim and arched, but there were no seats. There were praying-stools, that all the people might kneel.

The difference lay in the words which were carved over the door and in the picture which took up all the space of the wall behind the pulpit. The picture was of a glorious army with banners, and the artist who painted it had dwelt on it lovingly; and there were pure white and clear red and shining gold in the halos, and he had put on the children's faces and on the faces of the men and women the eagerness and happiness of those who go gladly to battle.

And it was on the day that the church was finished that Adah died.

"God has let me live long enough to see it," she whispered to Esther, "but he will let you live to carry on the work. You are great and good and fine, and I've been mean and selfish all my life; but I've learned a little of my lesson before it was too late."

And her eyes were peaceful as she said it, and she folded her hands upon her quiet breast and fell asleep.

And Esther, lonely, and longing more than ever for the haven of her little home on the hills, put the key of the church in her pocket and went forth to find a preacher.

As Adah had said, the city was full of churches, and one might have spent a lifetime in visiting them all. But the Wise Old Woman knew that her quest would not be in vain. So she set out hopefully, and one month passed, and two, and it was on the third Sabbath of the third month that she came to a stately spired edifice where one trod on soft carpets, and listened to an exalted choir, and gazed at windows which were like jewels in a somber setting.

Now in the pulpit of the spired edifice a young man preached, and what he said was good, and his congregation listened and agreed; yet not an eye was lighted nor a cheek flushed; and the young preacher waxed more eloquent, and as he strove to move them he was moved himself by an emotion which seemed suddenly to possess him, and for which he could not account; for he did not know that in the very last pew of that vast edifice sat a Wise Old Woman who was praying the prayer which she had prayed for forty years!

And as she continued to pray it seemed to her that the air about her throbbed to the cadence of her cry, and as if the whole world must hear it. But it was only the young preacher who heard, for his ear was tuned to catch celestial strains.

And thus it came about that in the midst of his sermon he faltered and stopped. And as the people stared he spoke again, feeling, as it were, for his words

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"My friends," he said, leaning a little forward, "I came to you this morning with a carefully prepared sermon, but with a sense of the futility of all sermons. A moment ago every word that I had prepared went out of my mind, but in the place of discouragement I have a singing sense of victory. It seemed to me that as I spoke to you a voice beat against my words and silenced them, and the voice said: 'Awake, awake, O arm of the Lord; awake, put on thy strength—awake!'"

And now the church was so still that one might almost count the heart-beats.

"The things which I must say to you this morning," he went on, "are greater than I. I shall interpret the voice and give you the truth as it has come to me. Hitherto I have talked to you of brotherly love, and you have translated it by building a settlement home in the slums. I have spoken of the hideousness of civic and social crime, and you have set yourself to work to appoint committees, and you have investigated and probed and legislated. I have asked and you have given—and we have schools and hospitals and libraries as the evidence of your great charity.

"Yet, while these things are good, there are better things; so I shall ask you now if your lives show your loving. Does the good that your money is doing offset the evil of your example? Do you, who work among the poor, neutralize the effect of your philanthropy by the pessimism which denies the regenerating power of the spirit? Have you, who profess to see a remedy for certain evils in legislation and investigation, no hidden record of passion or of greed which shall wreak its vengeance on the race for generations to come?"

There was movement in the church now, with faint rustlings, and some faces were white like snow and others were flaming.

"What the Church of to-day has to find is not so much the remedy as the disease. Prevention is more valuable than cure in religion as in medicine. The spiritual as well as the physical health of the individual makes for the purity of the whole social body. To succor those who have sinned is good, but it is a better thing to inspire them with ideals which shall keep them from sin and help them to self-mastery.

"The time has come," the inexorable voice proceeded, "for the army of the Lord to fight with the weapons of love. But it must fight with shining sword blades. There must be no stains of miserliness, no stains of impurity, no stains of sordidness, no stains of secret sins. We who would help others must be strong, not weak, and our eyes must be open to see the light."

He paused and seemed to gather himself together for a final effort. "Too long the Church has trusted to science and to law to provide a remedy for that which can best be remedied by the mighty forces of conscience. Too long it has depended upon money to relieve the woes of an unwakened world. In future, therefore, I shall place no emphasis upon material help. I shall urge you, rather, to give to your fellow-man the inspiration of your own steadfastness, the uplift of your own high courage, the vision of your own ideal; and these things shall mean more to him than food and drink.

"But to give these things you must get them. And in getting you shall learn that integrity and purity are more to be desired than purple and fine linen. You shall learn that it is not only a better thing but a happier thing to be an honest cobbler on his bench than to be a dishonest financier condoning corruption; that it is not only a better but a happier thing to be a white-souled seamstress than to live in luxury with scarlet sins.

"And these things you shall know and believe, because of the voice which has spoken to me, and which has cried, 'Awake!'"

He ceased as suddenly as he had begun, and raised his hands to bless them. But they turned from him, and spoke among themselves, and said: "He has lost his mind. Alas! we must find some one else to preach for us."

And they went away hurriedly, until he faced finally the empty pews and the silence of the great church.

Then from the very last pew in a dim corner came the voice of the Wise Old Woman. "Come and preach in my church."

The young man peered into the dimness. "Who spoke?" he asked.

The Wise Old Woman in her shabby bonnet came out into the aisle, and in his long black gown the young preacher went to meet her; and when they met he took her hand and asked, "Where is your church?"

"It is the new one in the heart of the city."

"But there is no congregation, and why do you call it yours?"

"Because I hold the earthly deed to it.

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But it belongs to the Lord, and you and I must find the congregation."

So that very day she took him into the church, whose interior as yet no man had seen except the workmen and the artist, and she showed him the great painting on the wall, and she told him of the prayer which she had prayed for forty years.

"And now I know that in you the world has found a leader and that my prayer is answered."

And he knelt before her in his strong young manhood and said: "It was your voice that beat against my voice. O Wise Woman, teach me and I will learn."

Then, as she stood beside him, little and old, she looked upon him as a mother looks upon her son, and she said, gently: "There are lost sheep out in the darkness. It is for us to find them."

III

Now the first that the Wise Old Woman found was a girl who sat late on a bench in a park which overlooked the river. Autumn had come to the city, and in the warm, still twilight there was the sweet stinging smell of burning leaves and the blue haze of their smoke. But the river was dotted with lights which hung low on the drowsy boats; there was a crescent moon, and the hills were purple against the pale-rose sky.

The girl wore a white blouse which showed her slender throat, and a wide black hat which almost hid her unhappy eyes.

And the Wise Old Woman, looking into those eyes, said, gently: "You won't mind, will you, if I sit beside you on the bench? It's such a lovely night."

And the girl moved up a bit so that the Wise Old Woman could sit down, but she said not a word; she simply looked out over the water to the dark hills beyond.

Then the Wise Old Woman said again, "It's a lovely night," and the girl turned towards her.

"I'm too tired," she said, "to know whether it is lovely or not."

"Poor child!" said the Wise Old Woman; "has the day been hard?"

"Oh, it isn't the work," said the girl. "I could stand the work, if only there was a little fun. But I am young—I want—to be—happy. Like other people—"

"Like other people?" The Wise Old Woman had taken the girl's hand and was stroking it. "Are other people happy?"

"Of course," said the girl. "Look at all the people with money."

"Are all the people with money happy?" persisted the Wise Old Woman, still stroking the cold little hand. "Is that woman happy?" and she pointed to one who lounged in a gorgeous limousine and whose rouge and restless eyes as they met the eyes of men proclaimed her profession.

"Is that woman happy?" asked the Wise Old Woman again.

"At least she doesn't have to live on eight dollars a week," said the girl, defiantly. "No one could blame a girl who went wrong on eight dollars a week."

"I should blame her," said the Wise Old Woman, gently.

The girl withdrew her hand. "Then you would be hard," she said, with a little gasp, "and cruel."

"Should I be cruel," said the Wise Old Woman, "if I asked her to keep burning the sacred light in her soul's shrine?"

There was a moment's silence, then the girl whispered, "What do you mean?"

"I mean," said the Wise Old Woman, "that every woman is rich who keeps her self-respect. Every woman is poor who loses it."

"Don't preach," said the girl, sharply. "I won't listen."

"I am not preaching," said the Wise Old Woman, "but I will tell you this: that it is a great and wonderful thing to be a good woman."

Then a light came suddenly into the girl's eyes. "Oh," she said, "you make me feel strong; everybody else has made me feel weak—as if I couldn't help the things that loomed so black ahead of me. But you—why, it seems to me as if you had held up a lantern in the darkness."

And the next day when the Wise Old Woman saw the young preacher she said to him: "Last night I talked to a girl, and she will come to our church, and she will bring other girls. For she has anchored her hope to an ideal—and an ideal to the young is like water to the thirsty."

And the young preacher smiled down at her, and answered: "I found a young man. And he is rich. Richer than all the men in my other church. And when I found him, he was standing on a high bridge and looking down into the black waters. And I touched him on the shoulder and asked him to tell me the time, and as he turned his eyes on me I

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saw despair in them. And I said from the depths of my heart, 'Man, let me help you,' and he said, 'There is no help. I have lived for pleasure, and I am in the chains of a habit which is stronger than I. Last night I came home drunk to my young wife. I shall never forget the look in her eyes. If I go on living, I shall again see that look. I shall see her love for me wither and die. So I shall not go on' —

"Then I put my hand again on his shoulder, and I said, 'Break your chains,' and he said, 'I cannot. There are those who tell me that my will is weak, and that my inheritance is bad, and they have rung the knell of my hopes.'

"And I said, 'If to-morrow a man should come to you and should say, "A race of barbarians plans to enter the gates of your city. They will kill your men and ravage your women," would you run away?' Then his eyes flashed, and he said, 'You know I would not,' and I said, 'You would buckle on your armor, and go forth to defend your city and your honor and the honor of your women, and, if you died, you would die fighting.'

"Then I saw him square his shoulders, and he said, 'At least I should try to play the man.'

"Then I said, 'Play the man now. Fight the enemy who is striving to kill you and to break the heart of your wife.'

"And he asked, with a new look in his eyes, 'Will you help me?' and I said, 'I will help,' and we turned away from the bridge and the dark waters."

So on that first Sabbath there came to the church, not only the girl who wanted to be good, but other girls who wanted to be good; and there came, not only the man who was willing to fight, but his young wife, who was willing to fight with him; and there came also the workmen who had built the church, and the artist who had painted the picture, and the people who read the words which were carved over the door. And there came, too, some of the members of the young preacher's former congregation who had thought upon his last sermon and who had been unable to close their ears to his cry.

And as the weeks sped, and the months, there came others, that they might keep in the world's awakening.

Then one morning the Wise Old Woman put her hand into the hand of the young leader and said, "Good-by."

"The work will go on without me," she told him, "and I am hungry for the hills."

And he said, with her little hand held fast in both of his big ones, "If I let you go, will you come again?"

And she said, "My heart will always be here, but my little body is weary, and I shall be glad to rest."

So he let her go, and went back, missing her, to his work.

When the Wise Old Woman reached her stone cottage, spring had come to the countryside, but the air was cool, and there was a bright fire burning on the hearth, for the farmer's wife had made ready for her; and the dog welcomed her; the cat had forgotten, but was content to stay there in the warmth. And as night came on, the Wise Old Woman lighted the candle in its brass holder and set her Book on the little table, and everything seemed as if she had never been away.

And when she had eaten her simple supper, she read from the Book and composed herself for the night. Then she knelt to pray, and her prayer now was of thanksgiving and not of petition.

And suddenly the room seemed filled with a great light, and there was the sound as of angels singing, and the old woman smiled and murmured, "They are singing in my church."

Then she fell asleep, and in the morning the birds called to the blossoming world, "Wake up!" and the sun, rising higher and higher, cried, "Awake!"

But the old woman did not wake. She still slept on. For her work was done.

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PARENTS AND EDUCATION

BY ELIZABETH CHILDE

THE lesson of Maeterlinck's "Blue Bird" is one that appears to have a wide application. There are many things besides happiness that are waiting for us at home, quietly, unobtrusively waiting, while we vainly seek for them in the big world at great cost and with great labor. One of these is education—*higher education*, if we define that term as the education that comes first in productiveness instead of last in time.

That the highest education of all—the education that makes all things possible—must be given to children by parents and in the home has been my conviction for several years. It came to me gradually, not as a theory, but as a fact developing from my own experiments with my own child and the children of friends. It took hold of me overwhelmingly as I watched and compared the effects of home and school training upon the children who had been intrusted to my care. It seems to me to have been conclusively proved by the remarkable little Sidis boy and others scarcely less remarkable whose stories have appeared in the magazines.

Believing that in the right sort of home intelligent parents who begin early and proceed wisely can do almost anything with their children, I feel it to be supremely important that intelligent parents generally should be cognizant of the fact, and that they should become thoroughly posted as to what it is wise to do and how best to do it. For this reason I wish to plead the cause of the Home and School Association, which is to me the most hopeful indication of modern educational progress, being the only organized effort to introduce the great unsolved educational problem to the only people who can possibly solve it.

My first experience with an organization of parents and teachers was a peculiarly fortunate one. After leaving college I spent one year as student assistant in a public kindergarten in which mothers and teachers met at regular intervals to discuss educational problems. The subject of the first meeting that I attended was "Teaching Obedience," and it was discussed freely by the mothers. As an inexperienced girl, engaged to be married and knowing absolutely nothing about bringing up children, I was fascinated. When Mrs. L—— expressed her opinions, I took them with several grains of salt. Her Joseph was one of my daily responsibilities. That very morning I had been obliged to seize with both hands his fast disappearing little feet, and extract him forcibly and most undignifiedly from the deep recesses of the supply cupboard, so I knew just how obedient he was not. But when Mrs. M—— spoke, I believed every word, because of the co-operative teachableness of her children, who were the admiration of the school. The subject of the second meeting was "How to Develop Self-Control;" and so on through the year I listened to the discussion of such vitally important questions by people who spoke from personal experience, and so knew.

A few years later, when I found myself with a baby in my arms, I realized that the most valuable part of my education had undoubtedly been received from those kindergarten mothers' meetings. They had given me something to live by and work by, something that brought results. I had learned from those mothers, first, how much it is possible for a mother to do; second, that, to do anything at all, a mother must begin at the very beginning. There is nothing new about those ideas. They are both proverbial, not to say trite; but they had come to me as living facts straight out of the world of real things, and I shaped my life and the life of my child accordingly.

It does not take a physician to make for a child a healthy physical environment, nor a clergyman to provide a wholesome moral one. Neither does it require a psychologist nor even a teacher to give the right trend to mental development. Any mother with a little educated good sense and plenty of enthusiasm can work these things out for herself, and to suit the peculiarities of her own children. The first thing to do is to have a definite purpose. I put the physical development first as being fundamental, then the moral, and last I determined that my Suzanne should love learning for its own sake; I wanted her to be a student, a lover of books. These were the points that I kept uppermost in my mind during the first few years of her life, the things that I chose to "begin from the very beginning." I worked somewhat after the manner of Dr. Sidis, though with less

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system; and the results were quite as startling as they were unexpected. The child learned to read as naturally as she learned to talk, and with no more effort. She accumulated all sorts of knowledge in a perfectly unconscious way, just for the fun of it. I would have been alarmed at my superlative success if it had not seemed so perfectly natural.

When Suzanne was six, I put her into the public school with children of her own age. Realizing how much I owed to the mothers' meetings of old, I had hoped that there would be something of the sort in connection with her school, but there was not; the mothers of the community seemed indifferent to all educational matters, and very few ever visited the schools except with some complaint or grievance. Disappointed, but not discouraged, I set aside a morning of each week for the purpose of visiting the school and studying the educational machine. This was not a simple matter, for at that time I kept no servant and was very busy with domestic affairs; but I felt that I must know exactly what was done in the school, and how it was done, else how could I make the home supplement the school? And so I became intimate with the teachers, and gained the immense advantage of seeing things educational from their standpoint; I studied the children and gained the further advantage of understanding childhood in general; I became acquainted with the course of study in the various grades, and found that often I could teach Suzanne in ten minutes what took weeks for a large class to master in the school-room.

After Suzanne had been in the first grade for about two months her teacher said to me one day:

"Mrs. Childe, it breaks my heart to think of giving Suzanne up, but I must tell you that the first grade is not where she belongs. She really ought to be in third or fourth."

"Are you sure?" I asked. "She is hardly more than a baby. Is there nothing in the first grade that she needs?"

"Absolutely nothing," was the positive assurance. "Her development seems perfectly symmetrical; I can't find a single weak spot."

I allowed Suzanne to go for two months in the second grade, and became convinced on my own account that there was nothing there that she needed. Then I took her out of school entirely, feeling that since home life had done so much for her it could be trusted further. For several years I kept putting her back into school for short periods to give her a taste of school life and test her home training in order to be sure that we were making no mistake; but there has never been a time when she could be classed mentally with children near her own age. Altogether she spent in the grades less than twelve months.

Last year, when she was thirteen years old, Suzanne was made to feel somewhat inferior by some of her acquaintances, who told her that she was getting way behind by staying out of school. So I put her into an eighth-grade class with a teacher who was an entire stranger, making the request that if she seemed fully prepared she be passed on into the high school. After a week I visited the school to see how she was getting on. The teacher came to me at once.

"Mrs. Childe," she said with great earnestness, "I want you to tell me *how you have trained that child;* I would be the happiest woman in the city if I could accomplish half as much with my class."

So after six weeks in the eighth grade Suzanne was admitted to the high school, though her teacher protested:

"Really, if I were you, I would not bother her with high school and college. She is already educated; she has the taste, the power, the appreciation, that we send children to high school and college to get."

So much for what the mothers' meetings and my intimacy with things pedagogical have helped me to do for my own child; but I found it impossible to stop there. For one who has felt the fascination of bringing to light and developing in the best way the wonderful possibilities that are common to childhood an only child is altogether insufficient; and the spectacle presented in every public school of children whose lives could be transformed and whose futures could be infinitely blessed by a little educational mothering made me borrow and beg from friends and neighbors in order to keep my home school from becoming extinct. I have taken nervous, high-strung little girls whose health was being seriously injured by the pressure of the school-room, have watched them grow rosy and plump in the wholesome atmosphere of the home educational where there is nobody to get ahead of one and nobody for one to get ahead of. After a year or a year and a half I have put them back with their classes, and had the satisfaction of realizing that they had not only kept pace, but had so gained in mental grasp and

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independence that they could do the school work comfortably and without strain. There are at present two children, utter misfits in the school-room, who are doing their lessons at my dining-room table. At school they were doing nothing—worse than nothing, for they were contracting habits of inefficient, careless work; in the home educational they are acquiring, in addition to grammar, arithmetic, and the like, a tremendously important accomplishment, *the work habit.*

In all this work I have but two regrets: First, that I have time and opportunity to help so few children when I know that the education of ninety per cent of all school-children could be doubled in value by the right sort of home co-operation. Second, that those I do work with come to me so late, after so much mischief has been done. If I could only begin at the beginning, I could accomplish so much more! The only solution of these two difficulties lies in the awakening of parents to the realization of their part in education. Strange to say, this is all but impossible, so powerful an anæsthetic is the prevailing blind confidence in the educational machine.

"I believe in the public school. Children need the discipline, and they need the contact of their own kind." This is the conclusive argument advanced by thousands of the best fathers and mothers, most of whom have scarcely been inside a school-room since their own childhood. It is mischievous because it is the truth, but not the whole truth. Every sane person must believe in the public schools; we could not do without them. All children unquestionably need discipline as well as contact with their kind; but a great many of them seem to dodge most of the discipline of the school, and the vast majority get far more of the contact with their kind than is good for them. The point is that there are innumerable influences that children as individuals need, influences that the school cannot possibly supply; and the only way to learn what they are and how to supply them is to get into intimate touch with parents who are accomplishing things, with teachers who know the limitations of the school, and with the children themselves actually engaged in class-room work: to become, in short, thoroughly conversant with the general problem of elementary education. Any mother who does this will see endless opportunities to make herself an invaluable factor in the education of her children.

And so I assert emphatically that the Home and School Association is the most hopeful indication of modern educational progress. The most discouraging feature is the apathy and indifference of fathers and mothers. When the Nation-wide movement to organize parents and teachers, and so to secure co-operation between home and school, came to our city, I was very enthusiastic about it. I felt that my dreams, some of them at least, were about to be realized; that the organization would be not only well supported but welcomed as a long-felt want; that parents would be the first to recognize its necessity, and would take the initiative in the work. I was mistaken. It is the teacher, daily struggling with the educational problem, who realizes the failure of the home; it is the teacher who is taking the initiative in the attempt to organize for the enlightenment of the home. The home is so utterly ignorant of the whole subject that it does not even know that it ought to be enlightened. Parents are so indifferent in the matter that they do not even attend the meetings. In one large downtown school in our city only thirteen parents attended, and in many other schools the outlook is hardly more encouraging. In our own school we have what is considered a very flourishing organization, but we are able to interest only about thirty of the mothers to the point where they remember to come to the meetings; there ought to be two hundred.

"I have been so busy! I simply can't find time to visit the school and attend these meetings," is the usual excuse of the absentees. And it is perfectly true. In this age of hurry and rush we cannot find time for anything; *we have to make it.* And make it we certainly will when we fully realize that the success, mediocrity, or failure of our children is the responsibility, not of the school, but of the home. Other interests, even important ones, will appear trivial in comparison.

And so I would say with all earnestness to every father and every mother: Join and actively support the Home and School Association of your community; if you have nothing to gain from it, then you have *very much to give to it.* And if there happens to be no such association in your school, organize one; not the kind that gathers to listen to an entertaining lecture, partakes of lemonade and wafers, and goes gayly home, but one that meets seriously and earnestly for the definite purpose of discovering the place of the home in the education of the child.

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THE NEW BOOKS

THREE NOVELS OF UNREST

This is not a quiet time, and its agitation, unrest, and tumult make themselves heard and felt in serious fiction. The reader does not find himself on "flowery beds of ease" in the current novel of ability; he finds himself within the circle of the world-wide struggle. Or, if social problems and industrial conditions are escaped, he finds himself dealing with personal problems hardly less disturbing.

Mr. Ernest Poole is one of a group of young men deeply interested in social questions, and students at first hand of social conditions. Whether one agrees with men of this type and habit of investigation or not, he cannot fail to respect both their knowledge and their sincerity.

"The Harbor" (Macmillan) has a far greater claim on the attention of readers than most novels. It is rooted and grounded, so to speak, in actual human conditions. Taking the harbor of New York, both geographically and sympathetically, as a background, Mr. Poole tells the story of the life of a young man from childhood to the hour when he becomes converted to the need of radical reorganization of society so as to secure social justice.

The story is intensely realistic in its record of details. Indeed, in the first chapter there is a bit of realism which might well have been omitted. It is a concession, not to realism, which gives us life as it is, but to naturalism, which feels that it is essential to fiction to recite facts which belong to the physical laboratory or to the expert report on vice conditions. But behind the realism of the story one is aware of a large movement of the imagination. Mr. Poole fuses the recitation of fact with the interpretation of the imagination. He sees the harbor of New York in its large relations; he looks at it as a commercial possibility that has been so far very unintelligently treated; he foresees its immense significance in the future intercourse of the world; and in one of the characters—an engineer of great ability who has the gift of vision and who is admirably drawn—he opens up the resources of the harbor as they will develop when it is treated with both efficiency and imagination. In the same character, too, he brings out clearly the services which great combinations of capital can render to the community through their power of foresight and their resources.

There is a charming love story running through the book, which humanizes its hardness and incidentally gives us a picture of a very human and lovely type of woman.

The novel is a dramatization of the unrest of labor under present conditions. The story of a strike is told with graphic power; and the treatment of the ignorant and unhappy men and women who share the tidal movement of antagonism has a kind of epical breadth and energy.

In spite of the violence which is described and the disturbance which is predicted, the story makes one realize the possibilities of growth in intelligence, self-command, and efficiency of the working class blindly striving to better themselves, and striving with as much purity of motive as the other classes in society.

"The Harbor" will awaken protest, cause irritation, and will be regarded as an essentially revolutionary story; but its underlying motive is constructive. It aims to reveal the social consciousness which is behind the unrest, and to suggest the power of organization for legitimate ends which resides in the untrained masses who constitute the majority of the people of the world.

Mr. Poole, as we have said, puts behind his story the harbor of New York, using it both as a physical background and as a symbol. Mr. Tarkington, on the other hand, puts a modern city of the Central West behind the drama which he elaborates in "The Turmoil" (Harpers).

Heretofore the stories of this delightful novelist have been idealistic. No American has touched a light theme with a lighter hand than did Mr. Tarkington in "Monsieur Beaucaire;" and his two stories of Indiana life were suffused with sentiment, with a glow of homely idealism, and with a delightful atmospheric friendliness.

"The Turmoil" is in another vein. A pleasant, neighborly city of years ago, in which everybody knew everybody else and life went on without much tumult or overstrain, has given place to a modern city, with its countless chimneys and great smokestacks covering it with a murky pall; its streets roaring with traffic and crowded with anxious people; its sky-line broken by ambitious sky-scrapers; the creation of an unlimited passion, not for greatness, but for big-

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ness. The tumult in this city, in which nobody rests and nothing is quiescent, is a symbol of the tumult in the lives of the great man of affairs who is the head of the family which Mr. Tarkington describes; a masterful person, absorbed in making big things bigger; without imagination except along practical lines; consumed with a passion for business, looking upon everything else as merely incidental. The rise of this family of three sons and a daughter, the moving into the big house, the attempt to get into society, the accumulation of things without beauty and without taste, and some of them without use; the brutal externality of the life of all the members of the family, except the younger boy, Bibbs, who is a semi-invalid—all this turmoil matches the roar of the city, and is a picture of the spiritual devastation wrought by gigantic materialism and efficiency without a soul.

The life of these people is worked out on this plane with a realistic vigor which Mr. Tarkington has shown in none of his earlier stories; and the novel would be extremely harsh, and as murky as the atmosphere of the city, if it were not for Bibbs and for the fine-spirited and devoted girl who comes to understand him. Their love-making is out of the common and wholly admirable. The grime does not touch this redeeming passion, which rises like a lily out of the foul waters of a pool into which great factories discharge their acids.

This story and "The Harbor" curiously complement each other; for while Mr. Tarkington does not specifically touch on the unrest of the working classes, he dramatizes graphically the unrest of the period, due to the attempt to put activity into the place of living, and to satisfy the soul with things instead of with ideals and affections.

Another novel of unusual quality is "Mrs. Martin's Man" by S. G. Irvine (Macmillan); a convincing story, full of quiet power, told with singular directness and a kind of suppressed energy which seems to charge all the details. The plot turns on the love of a man for his sister-in-law, and is therefore distinctly unsavory. While it is treated with frankness, it is entirely free from pruriency or from any attempt to make it other than it was.

It is not a pleasant theme, and it is not easy to understand why the novelists of to-day are so attracted by themes of this character; but it is only fair to say of this story that, while it errs in its frankness, it is free from any suggestion of corruption of taste or lowering of standards. It is a plain tale of Irish life, and its power lies in its curiously definite definition of outlines; its power to convince the reader that he has seen real things. Although realistic, it does not miss reality, and there are passages of great beauty in it. A description of Belfast one re-reads for the restrained charm, the fine artistic selection, and the definiteness of the picture presented.

Such a story as this reminds one that fiction is opposed, not to truth, but to fact; for no one can read this story and not recognize the fundamental truth which underlies it.

World War (The). How It Looks to the Nations Involved and What It Means to Us. By Elbert F. Baldwin. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.25.

Mr. Baldwin, who has long been a member of the editorial staff of The Outlook, was in Germany at the outbreak of the war. He was in a position, therefore, to know at first hand all the countries which cast their fortunes into the crucible.

The sixteen chapters which make up this book were written between the 28th of July, when the first rumors of war were beginning to be circulated, and the 30th of October, when three months of active campaigning had passed. The first chapter was written at Bad Nauheim; the sixteenth chapter on the steamer Cedric.

Unlike most books that have been written on the subject, this volume presents impressions and comments evoked from day to day as events progressed; and these comments and impressions were received and expressed under the immediate influence of foreign opinion and foreign surroundings. The book is therefore a kind of concurrent history of the first and critical stages of the war. It is a survey of the immediate antecedent history. It fills in the background of motive and event out of which each country emerged, either to take part in the great conflict or to preserve an anxious neutrality. It tells the story from the standpoint of Austria and Servia as well as that of Russia. It describes the attitude of the Government, reports the feeling of the people, and recounts the adventures of foreigners in Germany. It sums up the situation in France, Belgium, Holland. In England it reports the condition of the army, the attitude of the Government, and the spirit of the people. It devotes a chapter to Rumania and Italy, one to Turkey, and one to America. In the last-named chapter it answers the question, "What does the war mean to us?" There is a concluding chapter, "After the War," in which the writer expresses his conviction of the responsibility of the different countries,

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based chiefly upon the official diplomatic papers which had then been published—the White, Orange, Blue, and Gray Books.

Mr. Baldwin's book possesses both intelligence and timeliness. It is dispassionate in tone, and it is informally and interestingly—one might say intimately—written. It finds its place with a great number of books; and yet, both in plan and purpose, it has distinguished individuality.

Complete Works of Edgar Allan Poe (The). Collected and Edited by E. C. Stedman and G. E. Woodberry. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. In 10 volumes. Per volume, $2.

To the many handsome standard editions of American writers of rank which bear the imprint of Messrs. Charles Scribner's Sons has now been added the Complete Works of Edgar Allan Poe, edited with great care by E. C. Stedman and Mr. G. E. Woodberry twenty years ago, and published at that time in an attractive form, but from a type too small for comfort to the eye. These volumes have been entirely reset in large type of a very attractive style, printed on a handsome page and put in octavo form. No edition of an American writer of classical quality has been prepared with more thoroughness than this; and its appearance among the standard library editions confers a benefit on lovers of one of the most original of American writers. It has been revised by Dr. Woodberry, the surviving editor, who has found it necessary to make very few changes, though the bibliography at the end has been brought down to date and includes a considerable number of new titles in English and other languages. The edition contains a series of illustrations from the hand of Albert E. Sterner reproduced in photogravure.

Life of Thomas B. Reed (The). By Samuel W. McCall. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $3.

Mr. McCall, himself for many years a member of the National House of Representatives, has written a decidedly interesting biography of Speaker Reed. Necessarily it is almost altogether a political biography, and emphasis is properly placed on the drastic changes in procedure which Reed forced on the House in his determination to put an end to the "filibustering" that had previously made it so difficult to transact business. The establishing of these changes Mr. McCall regards as "the most important landmark in the parliamentary practice of the House" and as Reed's "great achievement as a parliamentarian"—a verdict from which few will dissent. In this connection, and on the authority of Mr. Root, Mr. McCall mentions the interesting circumstance that had not the Republican members of the House stood solidly behind the Speaker in his daring innovation Reed would have abandoned politics, resigning from the House to associate with Mr. Root in law practice in New York. Reed's rough-and-tumble methods as a debater and political campaigner, his mordant wit, and his never-failing courage are described and illustrated in a way that both wins the reader's sympathies and leaves no doubt as to the secret of Reed's rapid rise to leadership in his party. This is not Mr. McCall's first venture in the field of political biography, and we trust it will not be his last.

Edinburgh Lectures on Mental Science (The). By T. Troward. Goodyear Book Concern, New York. $1.25.

This small but valuable book takes soundings in deep water. It is especially for those who have crossed or are trying to cross the great divide between the mediæval and the modern conception of God. For "God" it substitutes the words "Spirit" and "Life." This was Jesus' thought: "God is Spirit." It is the dictum of Eucken's philosophy—"an Absolute Spiritual Life the ultimate Reality." It accords also with the evolutionist doctrine of "one life in all lives," intelligently building all living bodies, actively carrying on all our subconscious processes of nutrition, growth, repair, and welling up, as Spencer taught, into the conscious activities controlled by our will. Hence also spring religious aspirations and the intuitions that reward men's hungry "groping after God"—St. Paul's phrase. In this universal Life or Spirit we each dwell island-like in an ocean, we in God and God in us. Our life problem, says Mr. Troward, is to identify our individual selves in conscious thought, desire, and purpose with the universal Life in the sub-conscious deeps of our being, endeavoring so to think the thought and do the will of the indwelling One as to realize our unity with him and all the good conditioned thereon.

The present trend of theology is biological. Mr. Troward's "Mental Science" takes this line throughout. He is not strictly precise in terms, but reflecting readers should generally understand his meaning. An occasional paradox detracts little from the substantial value of his book. In his conception "Nature is spirit," as Principal Fairbairn said years ago. The natural and the supernatural, the human and the divine, life finite and Life infinite, in all their difference are essentially one, and the "personalness" of God enspheres all the fragmentary personalities of man. On these highlands of Christian theism the discoveries of biology and the intuitions of the great spiritual seers that are embalmed in Holy Writ converge in illuminating the Ultimate Reality of the universe, "deep-seated in our mystic frame."

Before Vassar Opened. By James Monroe Taylor, D.D., LL.D. Illustrated. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.30.

Dr. Taylor describes this volume in a sub-title as "A Contribution to the History of the Higher Education of Women in America;" a contribu-

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tion, by the way, which no man is more competent to make.

Vassar College was an opening in a field now occupied by many thoroughly established and well-endowed institutions, crowded with students. It is hard to realize that there was a time when the giving of the higher education to women was a matter of debate. The college for women was inevitable the moment women learned to read; it was the logical result of the whole educational process. There were "female seminaries" from very early days; and, so far as education goes, they bear about the same relation to modern education that a sampler does to a modern painting. As schools of character, of refinement, and of good manners, however, they struck a very high level; and one wishes that something more of their atmosphere might be brought into the modern college. Such early institutions as Mount Holyoke, the child of that devout woman of missionary spirit, Mary Lyon; the college at Elmira; the open doors to women of Oberlin, Antioch, and other institutions, led the way; but it was not until Vassar was established that the college for women defined itself as an object of popular attention. When Mr. Vassar one day expressed the wish that somebody would tell him what to do with his money, a neighbor in Poughkeepsie, Mr. Jewett, who was conducting a school for girls in that town, promptly suggested that he should build and endow a college for young women which should be to them what Yale and Harvard were to young men. This remark caught the attention of Mr. Vassar, took root in his mind, and the fruit of it was Vassar College. At the start it was abused and ridiculed; but it went quietly on its way, and soon justified itself by the quality of education it offered and by the character of its graduates.

This book lights up an interesting transitional period, and serves as an authoritative and interesting introduction to the development of the woman's college in America.

Through the Grand Canyon from Wyoming to Mexico. By E. L. Kolb. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.

Now that most of Europe is shut off from travelers, our own country may have a greater chance than ever to be seen. Among the less visited but most important sights is emphatically the Grand Canyon of the Colorado. The present volume contains much more than a mere description of natural scenery. It contains atmosphere—indeed, Mr. Owen Wister's atmospheric foreword prepares us for the atmosphere of the book itself. Mr. Kolb describes a journey from Green River City, Wyoming, to the Gulf of California; if we are not mistaken, his is the first volume to give a thoroughgoing description of this tour from southwestern Wyoming through Utah and Arizona to Lower California. The author is well prepared to give the description. A decade of work in the region as a scenic photographer certainly supplied the necessary experiences. His book is not one of "fine writing." It is much better than that. In very plain, direct, unvarnished language he describes exactly the conditions he himself had met in his own journey. His book contains the kind of narration which ought to be read by every one, whether an intending tourist or not. Such books make us acquainted with our own country and the actual life lived in particular parts of it.

California: An Intimate History. By Gertrude Atherton. Harper & Brothers, New York. $2.

This book deserves wide reading, and will probably have it. The volume is a singularly picturesque contribution to history. It is a trite thing to say that the book reads like a romance. Every one expects that any book from Mrs. Atherton's pen would read like a romance. Her material was certainly rich enough—the Spanish and Mexican governors of California, the Bear Flag revolution, the gold discovery, the upbuilders of modern California, and then those whom one might call the "downbuilders"—the Schmitz and Ruef and the railway control people. Then came the triumphant rehabilitation of the State under Governor Hiram Johnson. The serious fault of the book is that a concluding chapter is not devoted to those four years. They have made out of California perhaps the most progressive State in the Union.

Antarctic Adventure: Scott's Northern Party. By Raymond E. Priestley. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $5.

The author was one of the party of six who, under Commander Campbell's leadership, were detached from Captain Scott's command. Scott, with his Southern Party, made the successful attack on the South Pole, and of the tragedy that followed all the world knows. What befell the Northern Party is here told. Its experiences in travel, scientific work, Arctic camping, fighting cold, hunting, and sledging are related with vivacity and in a pleasing narrative. There are over one hundred and fifty pictures, most of them from photographs by Dr. Levick, the official photographer for this section of the party.

On the Track of the Great: Recollections of a "Special Correspondent." By Aubrey Stanhope. The John Lane Company, New York. $2.50.

Despite rather over-much small talk this book includes interesting reminiscences of a number of monarchs, among them William II of Germany, King Edward of England, King Humbert of Italy, King Carlos of Portugal, King Leopold of Belgium, King George of Greece, King Alexander of Servia, King Ferdinand of Bulgaria, and also of other quite as interesting modern men, among them being de Lesseps, Pasteur, Lamsdorff, and Venizelos.

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BY THE WAY

Lord Kitchener, according to a story told by Harold Begbie, was told one day (before the war) by Mr. Lloyd George that recruiting in Wales would be far quicker if the men could serve under a Welsh general. "But where is your Welsh general?" demanded Kitchener. "We had better discuss that with Colonel Owen Thomas, who has come with me and is now in your waiting-room." Kitchener gave orders to have the visitor admitted. As soon as he saw him he said, "You were in South Africa?" "Yes, sir," replied the Colonel. "Well, you're now Brigadier-General commanding the Welsh army; you'd better go and get to work at once."

Notwithstanding the popularity of the automobile, there were manufactured last year, according to statistics of the Carriage Builders' National Association, over one million horse-drawn vehicles. This does not include business or farm wagons, but takes account only of vehicles such as buggies, surreys, and other light carriages.

The Civil War still furnishes material for playwrights, says the "Dramatic Mirror," and it cites this incident in point: The Vermont Legislature, it says, recently passed a resolution commending a Virginia woman for her care, during the war, of a wounded Green Mountain soldier. The soldier, after being left for dead by his comrades, was found on the battlefield and nursed back to life by this Virginia girl. Secretary Stanton heard of the young woman's kindness, and in return released her father and brother from a Northern prison camp. Sick and friendless, they were discovered and invited by the grateful Vermont soldier to his home, and under his care they recovered and went back to their own State.

William Ruf, a gunner on the battle-ship Texas, broke the world's record, it is announced, in recent target practice off the Virginia Capes. He was credited with eight straight hits with a 14-inch gun, shooting at a moving target twelve miles away.

"Home Run" Baker may retire from the baseball field. While Baker's glory, like that of all his mates, was dimmed by his team's defeat last season at the hands of the Bostons, the noted player's grip on the affections of baseball enthusiasts is still strong, and the hearts of many "fans" will be downcast if Baker's decision to retire is not reconsidered.

The New York Central Railroad has received the E. H. Harriman gold medal for the best record in accident prevention and industrial hygiene for the year 1914. It is stated that not one passenger has been killed in a train accident in four years on this road.

A subscriber in whose home the late Bishop Whipple was once a guest writes us, apropos of a paragraph in this department, that Bishop Whipple told him this story: He had been visiting an Indian chief; when leaving his host's tepee temporarily, he asked, pointing to his traveling bag, "Will these things be perfectly safe here?" The chief replied, "Oh, yes, Bishop; there isn't a white man within three miles of here." The laugh was on the Bishop and the Bishop's race.

An article in "McClure's Magazine" describes the fight for pure food and says that as to canned goods "the whole canning situation is now pretty clean. Bleaching agents, preservatives, and artificial sweeteners are no longer used." Even the wonderfully green French peas and beans, made so by being dyed with sulphate of copper, are getting scarce, and "in a year or two will probably have a purely historic interest," for none of them have been admitted to our ports since January, 1913.

One of the dangers of navigation at the moment, says "Shipping Illustrated," is that of collision (of merchantmen) with war-ships. It seems that the officers of war-ships frequently consider that during maneuvers they are exempt from the ordinary rules of the road at sea, and the merchantman, consequently, is at a loss to know what course to steer when he meets war-ships steaming in formation. "On the largest liners," says the journal quoted, "it is always an axiom to give a man-of-war the widest berth possible, as one never can tell what she is liable to do."

A list of great construction projects under way in this country and Canada is given by the "Railway Age Gazette," as follows: The Quebec bridge, with the longest span in the world; the New York connecting railway bridge, with a 1,000-foot steel arch; the Baltimore and Ohio Magnolia cut-off, 12 miles long and costing $500,000 a mile; the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western cut-off at Clark's Summit, Pennsylvania, 40 miles long and costing $300,000 a mile.

The above projects are in the East. Other works mentioned are these: The largest freight classification yard in the world, in Chicago; a great bridge at Metropolis, Illinois, and another at Memphis, Tennessee; the Snake River steel viaduct, notable for length and height; the Canadian Pacific tunnel at Rogers Pass, British Columbia, 1,400 feet longer than the Hoosac tunnel, hitherto the longest on the continent.

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